AN ATLAS OF AFRICAN HISTORY

By

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FOREWORD

With the development of African history as a subject for study in schools and universities, a need has emerged for an atlas of African history comparable to those which have been devised for the history of Europe and other continents. The historical atlases that already exist give scant attention to Africa, and for the most part treat of it only as a continent which has been the recipient of influences and actions from outside. Some regional African atlases provide valuable historical maps, and specifically historical atlases have been compiled for a few favoured African territories or regions. But these do little to meet the growing demand from teachers and students for a general atlas devoted to the history of the whole of Africa, an atlas in which the continent and its inhabitants are treated as the central point around which influences and actions coming from outside can be seen in perspective.

However the requirement for an African historical atlas is much more easily seen than it is to be fulfilled. My own attempts to teach African history soon convinced me of the need for such an atlas, but when I was at length persuaded that one way to get it was to make it myself, I began work with but little understanding of the problems that would face me during its compilation. A vital first problem, of course, was to determine at what point in time an atlas of African history should open. It was decided somewhat arbitrarily to begin on the eve of the invasions by the Muslim Arabs. This decision involved some preliminary statement of what Roman Africa looked like, but led to the exclusion of ancient Egypt and Meroë. But despite the fact that Egyptian and Meroïtic influence on Africa must perforce have been both more widespread and deeper than that of the Romans, it was felt that the limits of history could not properly be pushed any further back into the past without trespassing beyond the realm properly to be studied by historical means into that of archaeology. But strictly speaking this decision was relevant only to northern Africa, and for all other areas of the continent a series of equally summary decisions had to be made as to the points in time at which predominantly oral evidence was to be deemed sufficiently unequivocal, and well enough stabilised by corroborative evidence from other fields, such as those of archaeology, anthropology and linguistic studies, to form a frontier between the realm of legend and that of data acceptable as such by the student of history. As well as an assessment of the quality and quantity of the evidence available in each case, each of these decisions also involved an appreciation of the degree to which it was feasible to present this evidence in geographical and graphical terms, and of the best manner in which this might be done. The author would be the last to pretend that satisfactory answers have always been found for these and similar problems of selection and presentation. It would be idle to expect that the solutions chosen will commend themselves to those with specialised interests and tastes, but it is hoped that, as a whole, this *Atlas of African History* may be found better than no atlas at all.

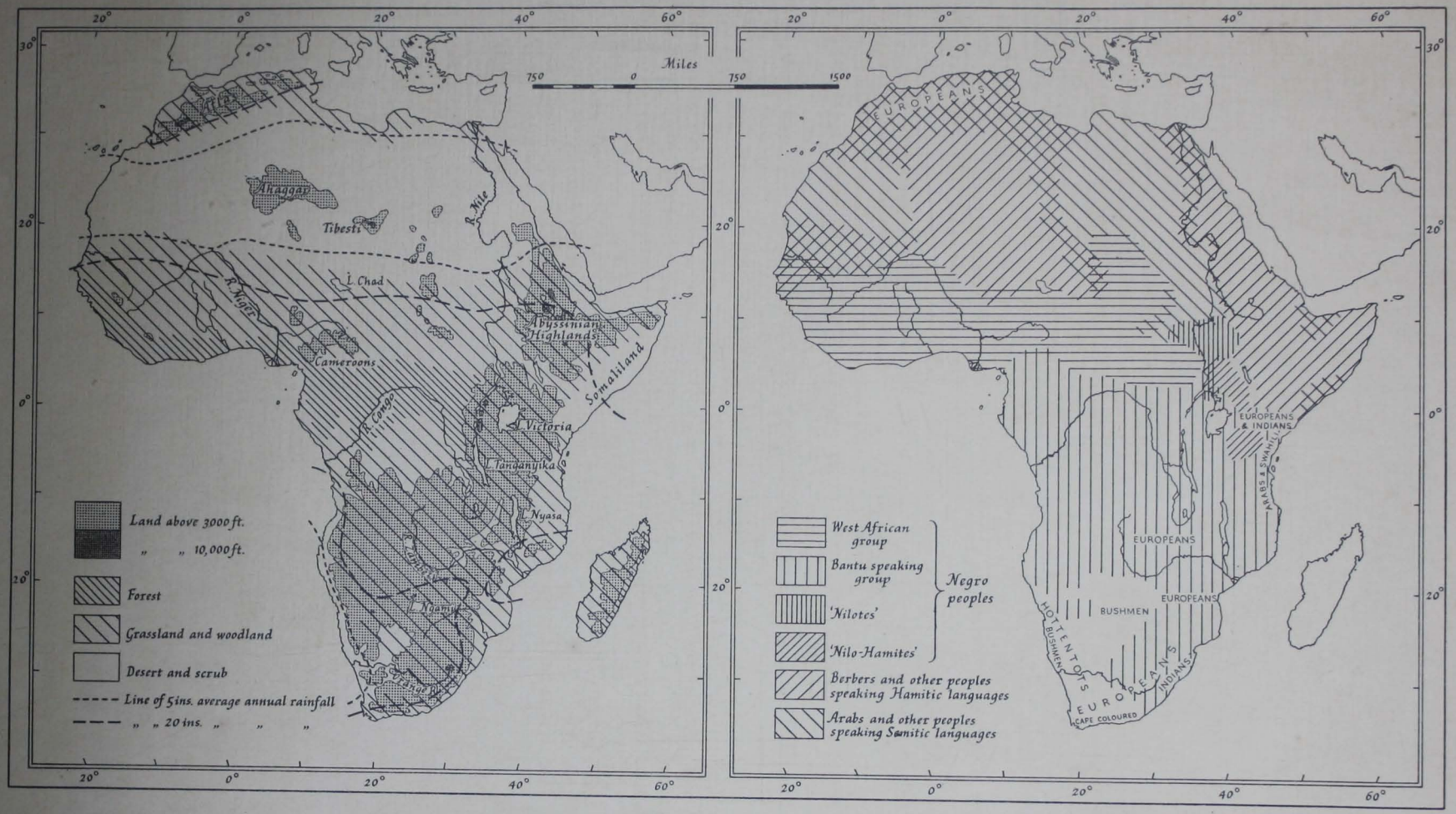
One particular point should be mentioned to avoid possible difficulties and misunderstanding. It has not seemed practicable to attempt throughout the *Atlas* to standardise the spelling of geographical and proper names. Nor perhaps would this be desirable, for notwithstanding the fact that there are now generally accepted rules for the transliteration of names from African languages and from Arabic, it should be remembered that these names have passed into history and into English usage at various times and in a variety of ways, often proceeding through the medium of one or more other languages on the way. The form of a name which may be most appropriate for a student requiring information about a particular part of Africa at a time when it was, let us say, under Muslim or Portuguese control, may not therefore be the form most appropriate to a map of the same area dealing with the earlier history of its peoples. Again, this form may well differ from that which has become standardised on modern topographical maps as a result of the work of nineteenth century European explorers, or of administrators to whom consistency has seemed more important than the rules of transliteration now recommended by linguistic authorities. A note on some of the more general difficulties with regard to Bantu and Arabic names is prefixed to the Index, and some attempt has been made to indicate variant or alternative names in the Index itself.

The author of a work of synthesis such as this, while he must accept responsibility for the errors and the faults of judgment within it, must at the same time inevitably acknowledge his debt to innumerable other sources. The more important of the written works which I can consciously recall having influenced or directed the shaping of my ideas on the historical geography of Africa are listed on p. 60. It is to be hoped that this list will also serve as a first bibliographical guide for any user of the *Atlas* who may wish to go more deeply into any of the subjects encompassed by it, but its primary purpose is to acknowledge the writer's manifold indebtedness to other authors. The extent to which I have relied on some of these will be only too apparent in the maps themselves, but I would like in particular to thank the Syndics of the Cambridge University Press and the Controller of Her Majesty's Stationery Office for their permission to adapt material which has appeared in works they have published. I should also like to acknowledge my indebtedness to the criticism and advice freely given by friends who have seen all or some of the maps in the course of their preparation. I should in particular record my thanks to my colleagues Mr. G. E. Metcalf, Mr. A. A. Kwapong, Mr. H. P. White, and the late Mr. I. A. Macgregor; to Dr. Roland Oliver, Mr. D. H. Jones, and Mr. R. A. Hamilton, of the School of Oriental and African Studies, University of London; and to Professor P. D. Curtin of the University of Wisconsin. My greatest debt, however, is to Maureen Verity, who has accomplished the formidable task of interpreting sketches of my intentions and transmuting them into finished maps with the grace and clarity to which the following pages bear witness.

J. D. F.

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(1) AFRICA: PRINCIPAL GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES, RAINFALL, AND VEGETATION

(2) PRESENT-DAY DISTRIBUTION OF PEOPLES IN AFRICA



ROMAN AFRICA IN IV TH. CENTURY

(3) ROMAN

The main map shows the greatest extent of Roman dominion in Africa, in the middle of the third *Africa* was properly applied only to one province, though in a more general sense it could mean North referred to as *Ethiopia*, though in a more specific sense Ethiopia was the Nile valley above Egypt, *Ethiopia*

Roman settlement was densest in the provinces of Africa and Numidia, and in the inset map an attempt third century, the large number of Roman towns in this region. To the west of Numidia, the Berber sive than the area earlier dominated by the Carthaginian trading posts (underlined on the map). Between the sea, and once again Roman settlement was confined to coastal towns. In Egypt the Nile valley was the attacks of the Numidians, to whom it was lost at the end of the third century.

The inset shows the provinces of the reduced empire in north-western Africa of the fourth century A.D., fertile plains of modern Tunisia and eastern Algeria were the scene of intensive colonisation. The area this zone of intensive settlement, and did not include Mauretania Caesarensis, the western part of

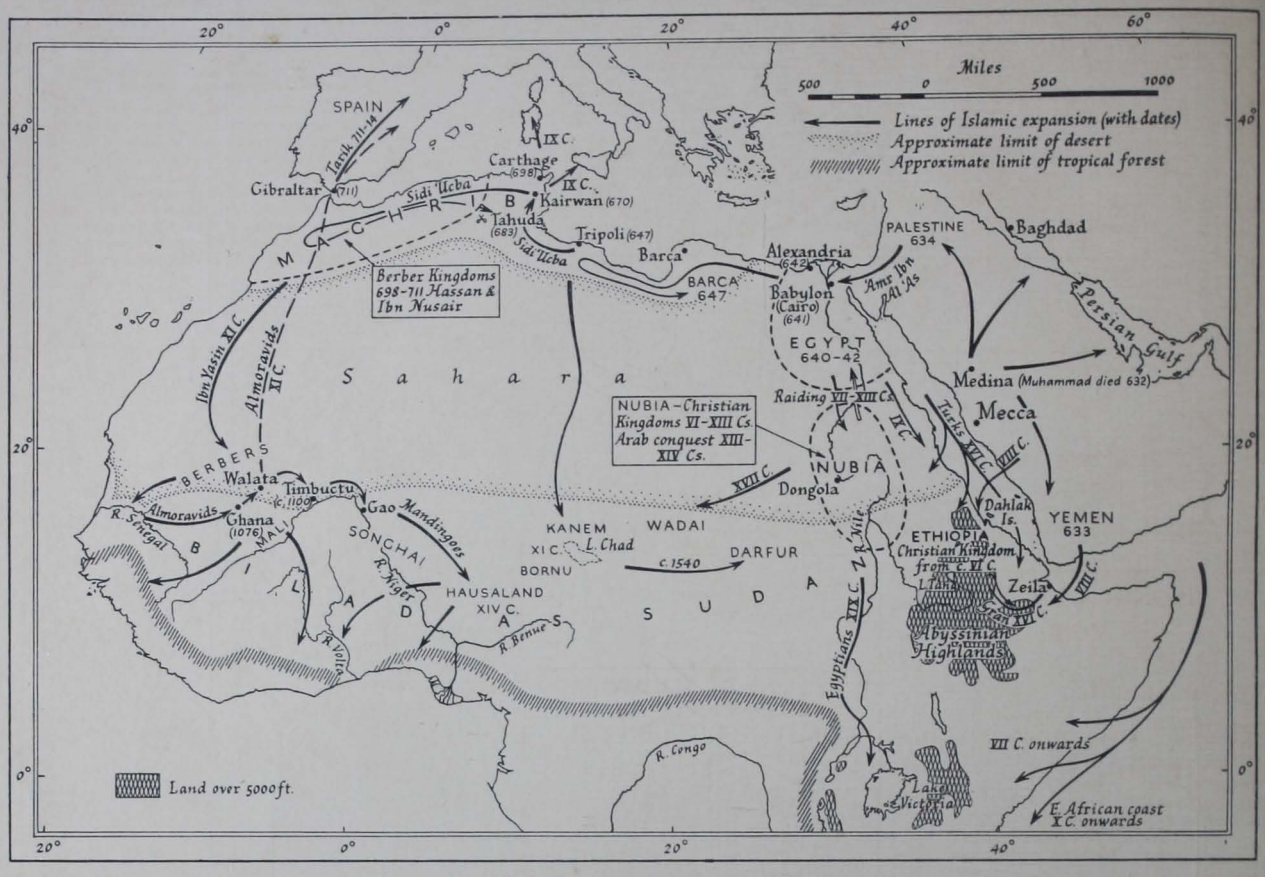


AFRICA

century A.D., with the major administrative divisions at that time. Note that to the Romans the word Africa with the exception of Egypt. The territory south of the area of Roman control was generally *supra Aegyptum*.

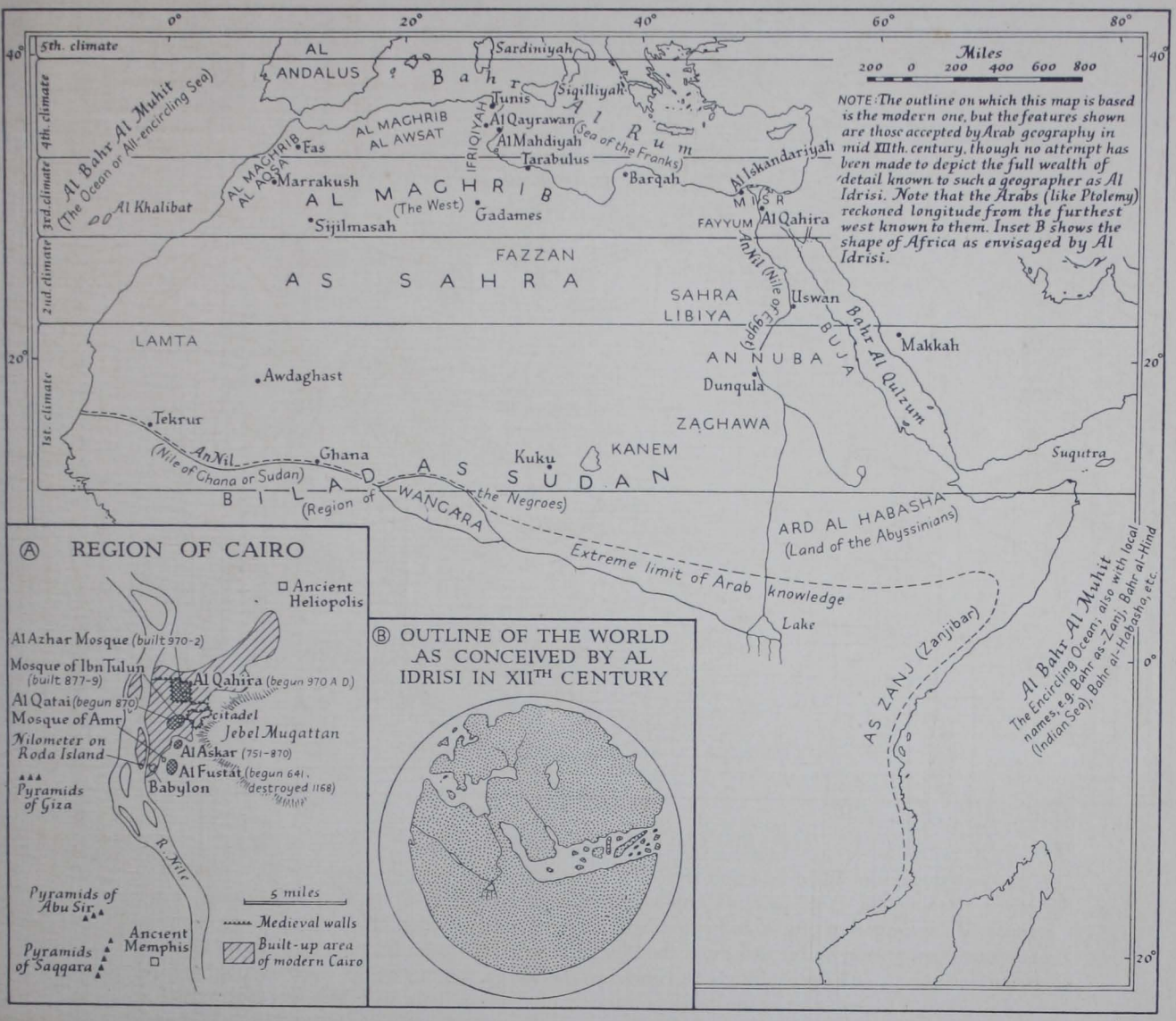
has been made to show, as well as the reorganisation of provinces which took place at the end of the tribes effectively confined Roman settlement to the narrow coastal plain, and it was hardly more exten- Africa proper and Egypt, except in Cyrenaica (initially colonised by Greeks), the desert presses close to held as far south as the First Cataract at Aswan, the Dodekaschinus being held as a buffer province against

together with the sites of some of the more important Roman settlements. It will be seen that the effectively controlled by the Byzantine emperors after the reconquest from the Vandals was limited to Mauretania Sitifensis, and the southern part of Tripolitania.

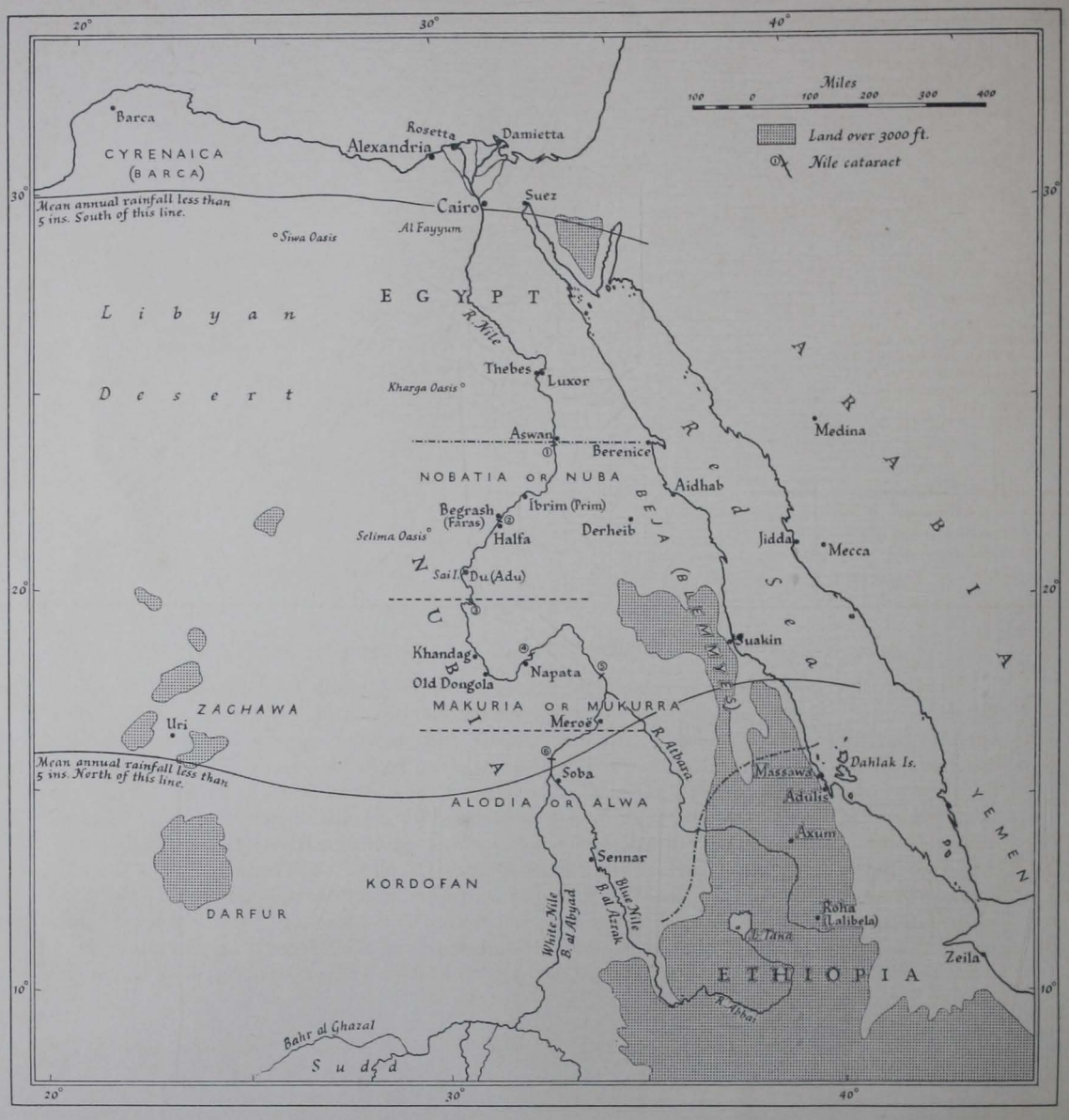


(4) THE PENETRATION OF ISLAM INTO AFRICA

The introduction of Islam into northern Africa is synonymous with the Arab conquest, though in Egypt something like three centuries elapsed before Islam had generally replaced Christianity as the religion of the conquered people, and in north-western Africa Islamisation did not begin to be complete until after the invasion and settlement of the Bini Hilal and Bini Sulaim Bedouin tribes in the eleventh century (see p. 13). The penetration of Islam across the Sahara was in part the work of Arab nomads, but was chiefly a consequence of the development of trans-Saharan trade, itself largely a consequence of the adoption of the camel by the people of North Africa, a process which was complete by about the fourth century A.D. (see p. 17). The expansion of Islam in the Sudan, other than in the Nilotic Sudan, where it was due to the Arab conquest of Christian kingdoms, was largely carried out by Islamised peoples native to the Sudan, e.g., Mande traders and state-builders and Hausa traders (see also p. 18). In the eleventh century an Islamic movement originating in the western Sudan, that of the Almoravids (*al-murabitun*), is carried northwards to the conquest of Morocco and Spain (see also p. 13).

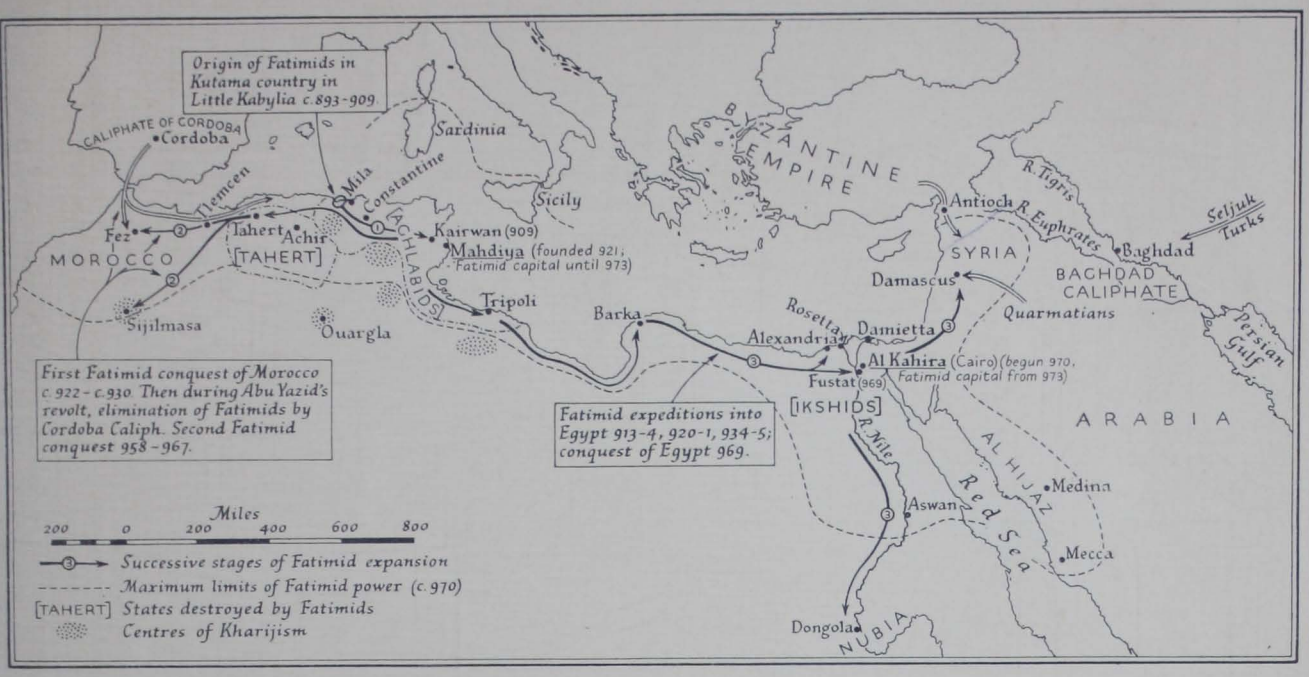


(5) THE ARABS' CONCEPT OF AFRICA



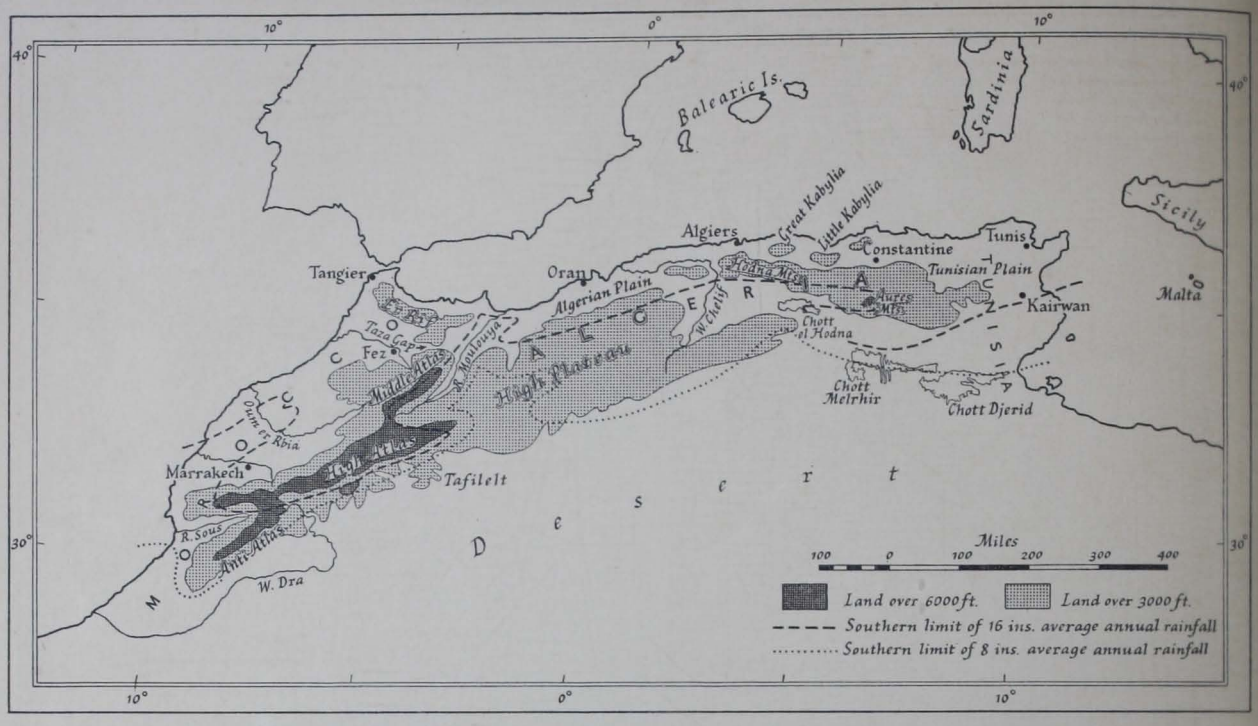
(6) EGYPT, NUBIA, AND ETHIOPIA, VIth TO XIVth CENTURIES

The ancient kingdom of Kush, with its centre first at Napata and then at Meroë, which had preserved in the Nile Valley between Egypt and the Abyssinian highlands its own brand of Egyptian-derived civilisation during many centuries in which Egypt itself was under foreign domination (Assyrians, Persians, Greeks, Romans), ultimately disappeared in IVth century A.D., the final blow being the sack of Meroë by Ezana (*c.* A.D. 320–350), the first Christian king of Axum. The inheritance of Kush then passed to the three Nubian kingdoms shown on this map, in all of which during the course of the VIth century Christianity was adopted as the official religion. By the time of the Arab conquest of Egypt (A.D. 641), the two northern kingdoms had united into the single kingdom of Dongola, which was not finally to go under to the Arabs and to Islam until XIVth century (see p. 8). Meanwhile Arab control of the Levant and of the Red Sea had meant the disruption of the Red Sea trade of the Greek merchants and of the east–west trade between the Yemen and the Nile Valley which had together formed the basis of the prosperity and power of Axum, and its Christian monarchy accordingly withdrew from the Red Sea coastland of Eritrea into the highlands of Abyssinia, where it ultimately developed into the Christian kingdom of Ethiopia (see p. 21).



(7) NORTHERN AFRICA DURING THE FATIMID EPOCH, Xth CENTURY

After the Arab conquest under Hassan and Ibn Nusair (p. 8), the Maghrib did not long remain under Caliphal control. In Ifriqiya (the Arab equivalent of the Roman Africa, i.e. modern Tunisia), the Aghlabid governors, who conquered Sicily and Sardinia, soon became virtually independent of the Caliphate, while in the west and centre Arab dynasties, such as the Idrisids, and Berber states, such as Tahert, arose which found expression for local particularism in the espousal of schismatic Muslim movements, such as Shi'ism or the quasi-republican Kharijism, which involved rejection of the orthodox Abbasid Caliphate. .The (Shi'ite) Fatimids, and their champions, the Kutama Berbers from Little Kabylia, conquered Ifriqiya during 902–9 and established an independent Caliphate. The Fatimid Caliphs, though until 946 themselves seriously threatened by Kharijist inspired revolt in Ifriqiya, sought to challenge the Abbasids in Egypt and also to assert their authority over the rest of the Maghrib. With the help of the Sanhaja dynasty of the Zirids of Achir, the western Maghrib was eventually reduced to obedience (958–67), and with their rear secured, the Fatimids were then able to establish themselves in Egypt (969) and to conquer Syria from the Abbasids.

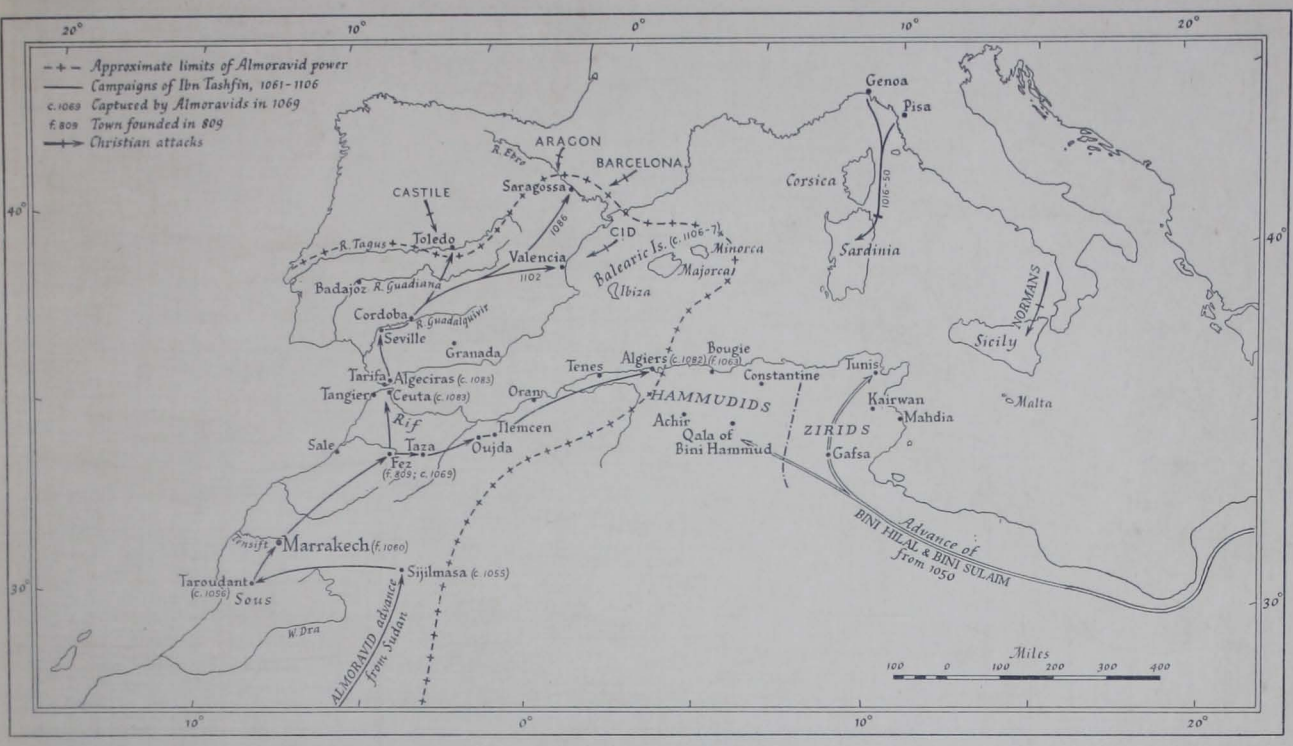


(8) THE GEOGRAPHICAL SETTING FOR THE HISTORY OF THE MAGHRIB

The Maghrib is in effect an island between Africa and Europe, an island more easily accessible by sea from Europe across the Mediterranean narrows and islands than it is from the rest of Africa, from which it is separated by wide stretches of desert. Its history has thus been more Mediterranean than African: it has often been dominated by European civilisations (pp. 6–7, 16, 44), and on one important occasion it provided a bridge across which a culture originating in Asia, Islam, was transported into Europe, principally by North African Berbers.

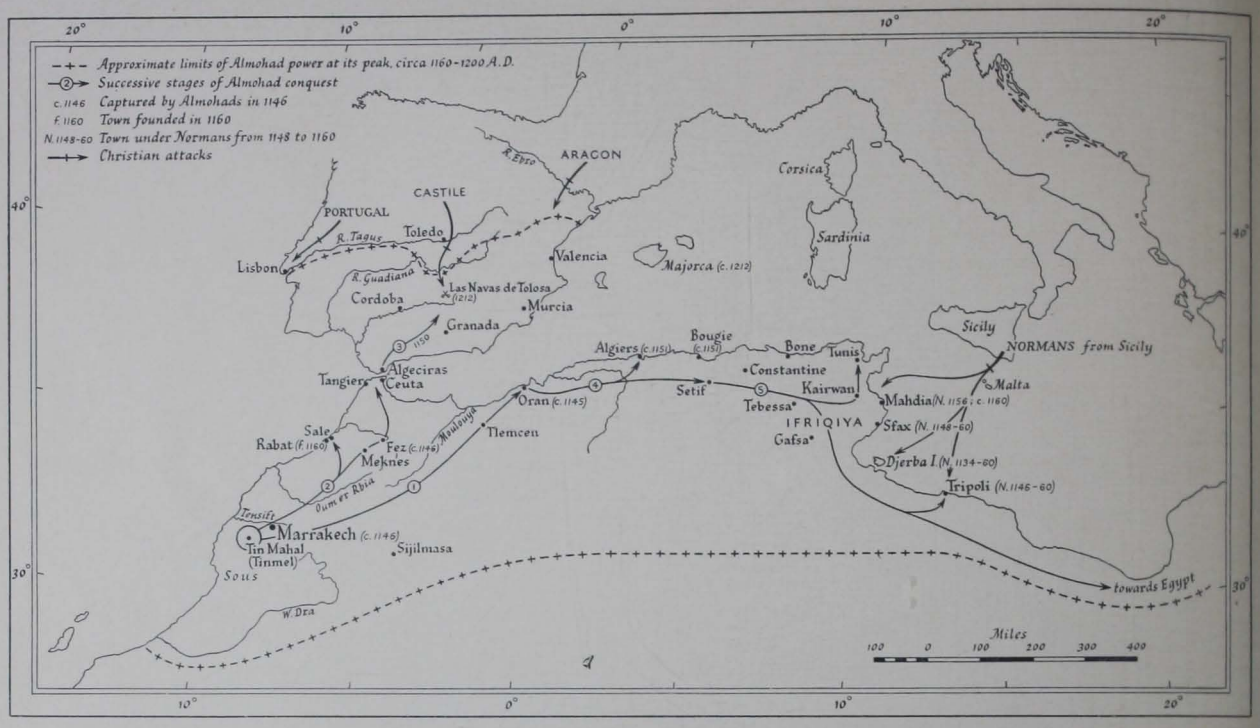
Geography divides the Maghrib into three parts, two ends and a centre. In the east is the modern Tunisia, the Africa of Roman colonisation (pp. 6 and 7), possessing the only extensive area of flat and relatively fertile land, even if the southern half of the country, the Byzacena of the Romans, is not agriculturally very productive without artificial irrigation. Historically Tunisia has served as the Maghribian base of developed and stable civilisations. On the other hand, Morocco, the far west, a land of high mountain ranges separating narrow plains which are linked only along the coast, has always tended to be the stronghold of North African Berber resistance to change and to alien rule, whether of Romans, Arabs, Turks, or Europeans.

What since the XIXth century has become known as Algeria is a region of transition, which in the Kabyles and Aures affords mountain strongholds of resistance comparable to those of Morocco, while its coastal plain offers opportunities for agriculture comparable to those of Tunisia. However, the plain is open to raids from the pastoral nomads of the high steppe plateau, who are naturally hostile to control by sedentary peoples. Historically Algeria has tended to be a region in which the rulers of Tunisia have competed with those of Morocco for control, though neither have usually succeeded in controlling it for long. Indeed, control of the whole length of the Maghrib by a power based on one of its ends has rarely proved practicable, with the result that the middle, Algerian, region has often lapsed into a state of anarchy or near anarchy characterised by the conflict between the nomads of the steppes and the rulers of the plain. In the XIXth century it was this weakness at the centre which afforded the opportunity for the entry of the French and their eventual mastery of the whole Maghrib.



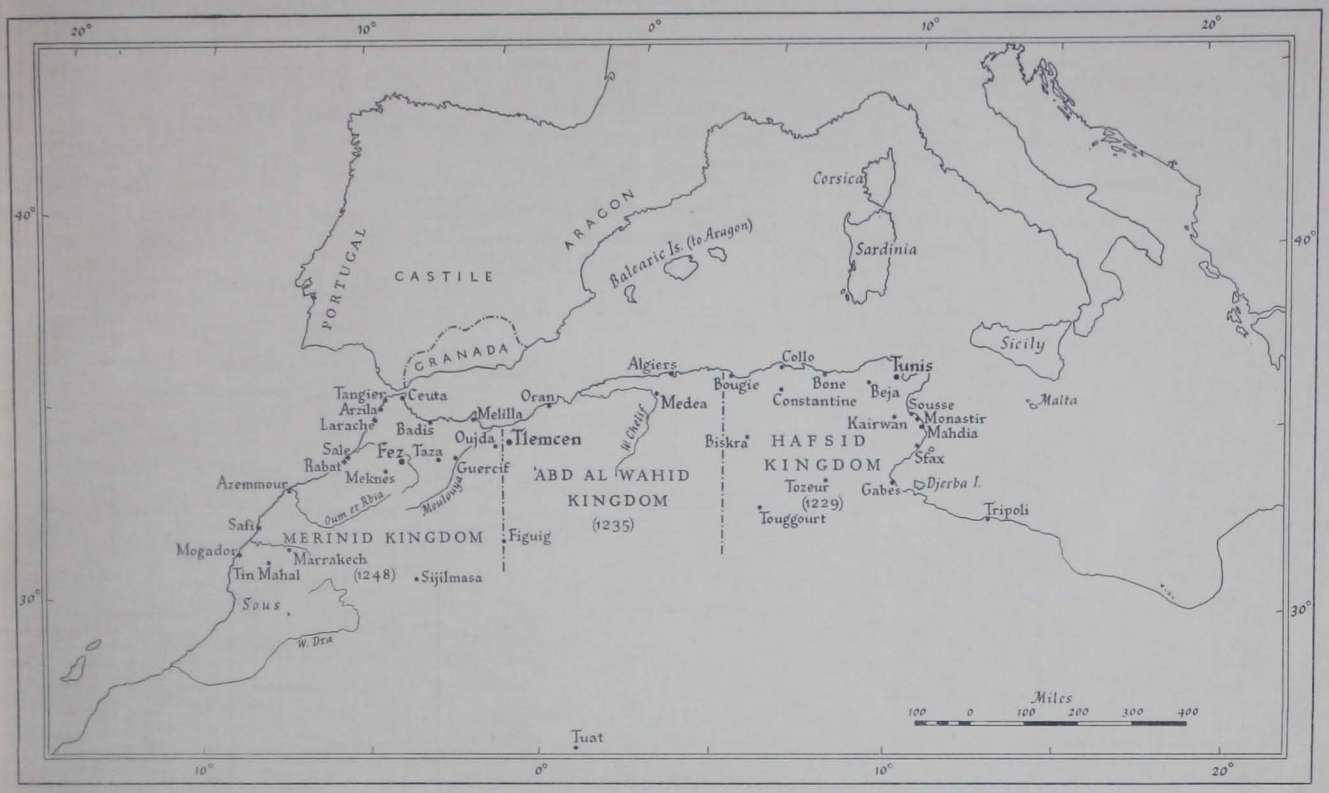
(9) THE EMPIRE OF THE ALMORAVIDS, *c.* 1050–*c.* 1140 A.D.

When the Fatimids (p. 11) transferred the seat of their power from Ifriqiya to Egypt in 973 they entrusted Ifriqiya to the governorship of the Zirids, who as a result lost control of their own homeland to their Hammudid kinsmen. The western part of the Maghrib reverted to the anarchic domination of the Zenata pastoral nomads of the steppes until the power of the latter was defeated by the Almoravids, a puritan Muslim horde of Saharan Berber tribes and Sudanese drawn north across the desert by the opportunities for power and plunder presented by the Muslim civilisation of Morocco and Spain. When the Zirids returned to the orthodox Abbasid allegiance and threw off that of the Fatimid Caliphs, the latter retaliated by despatching against them the Bini Hilal and Bini Sulaim tribes of Bedouin Arabs. The destruction of the sedentary agricultural civilisation of Ifriqiya by these plundering tribes facilitated the Norman attacks from Sicily shown on p. 14.



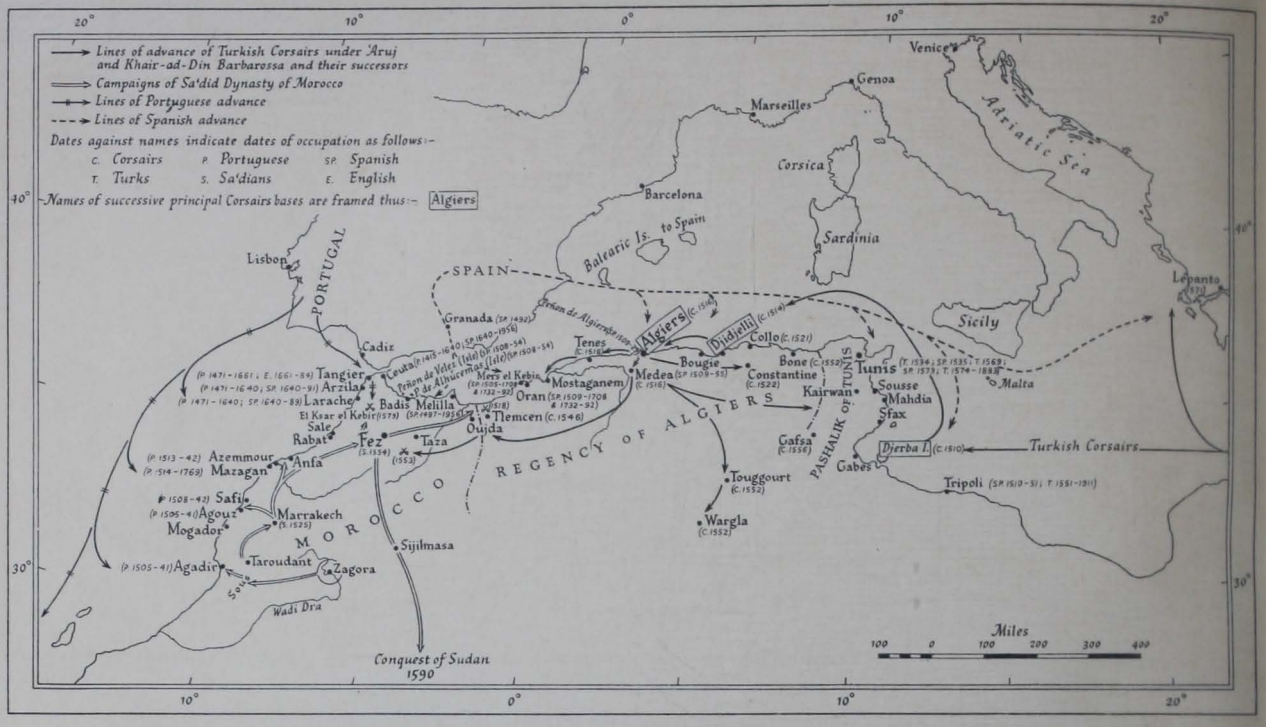
(10) THE EMPIRE OF THE ALMOHADS, *c.* 1140–1200 A.D.

The Almohad empire began as a movement of religious and political reaction of the Berber tribes of the Moroccan mountains against control and extortion by the desert tribesmen of the Almoravids. The decline of Almoravid power provided the opportunity for a Christian advance in Spain, to which the Almohads were soon called to free the Spanish Muslims from the Almoravids. The Almohads went on to destroy the Hammudid power in the central Maghrib, to conquer the Hilalians in Ifriqiya, and to reach to the borders of Egypt.



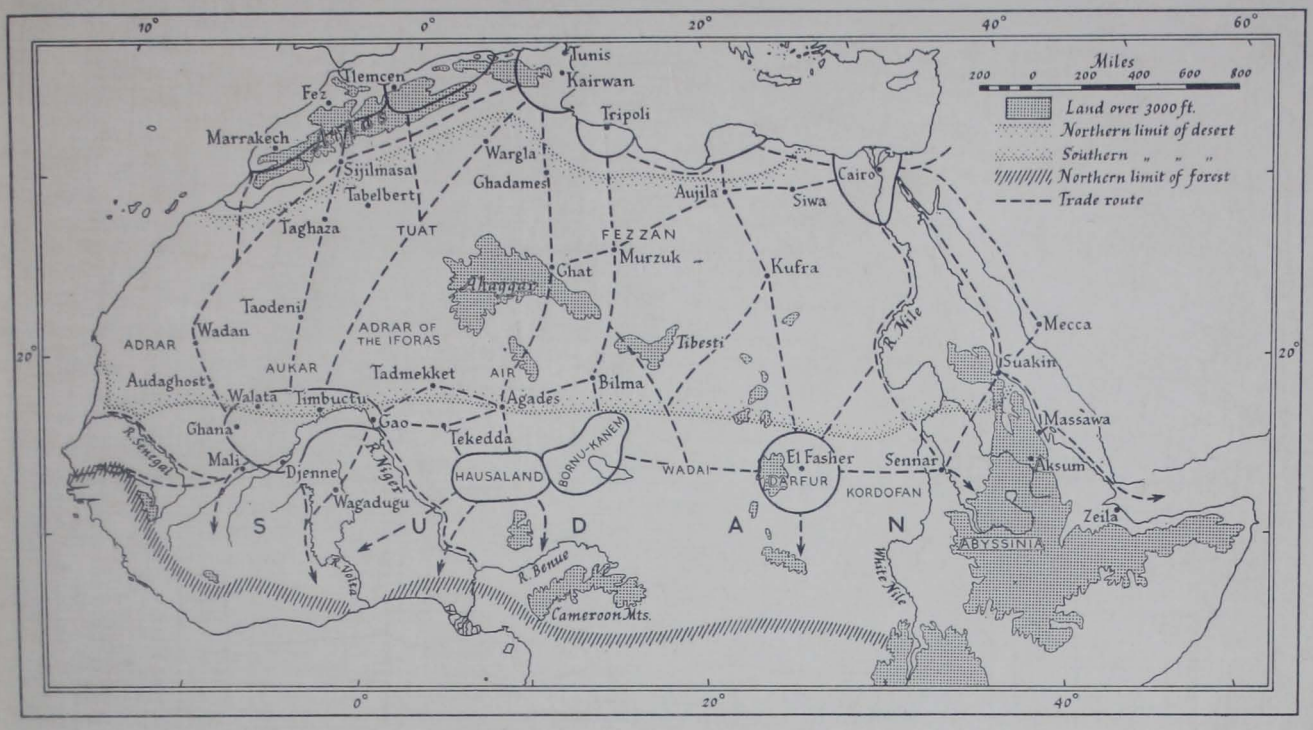
(11) THE STATES OF THE MAGHRIB, XIIIth AND XIVth CENTURIES

A power so extended in the Maghrib as that of the Almohads (p. 14) could not long survive. In the early years of the XIIIth century, the Maghrib broke up into three independent parts. First the governor of Ifriqiya proclaimed his independence of the Almohads and thus established the dynasty of the Hafsids; then power in the centre and in Morocco passed to the two Zenata Berber tribes, the Abd-al-Wahid and the Bini Merid respectively. After the Christian victory at Las Navas de Tolosa in 1212 (see p. 14), the Muslims were all but expelled from the Iberian peninsular.



(12) NORTH-WEST AFRICA, XVth AND XVIth CENTURIES

During the XVth century, with the expansion of Portugal, involving not only maritime expansion (p. 26), but also an attempt to conquer Morocco, initiative in the disunited Maghrib began to pass into the hands of outsiders. This process was intensified in the XVIth century, when, once the Moors had been finally expelled from the Iberian peninsular (1492), the Maghrib became a battleground in a struggle between Spain and the Turks for control of the western Mediterranean. This struggle ended in a formal victory at Lepanto for Spain, but in the course of it Turkish corsairs gained control of the African coast-line from Egypt to the border of Morocco. Tunisia became a Turkish province. Suzerainty over the central Maghrib (Algeria) was also nominally Turkish, but real power rested with the corsairs, who held the ports and attempted to exploit the hinterland tribes. In the meantime the Portuguese attempt to conquer Morocco had inspired the rise of the Sa'did dynasty, which repulsed Portugal, kept out the Turks, and even aspired to the conquest of the commercially valuable western Sudan (see also p. 19).



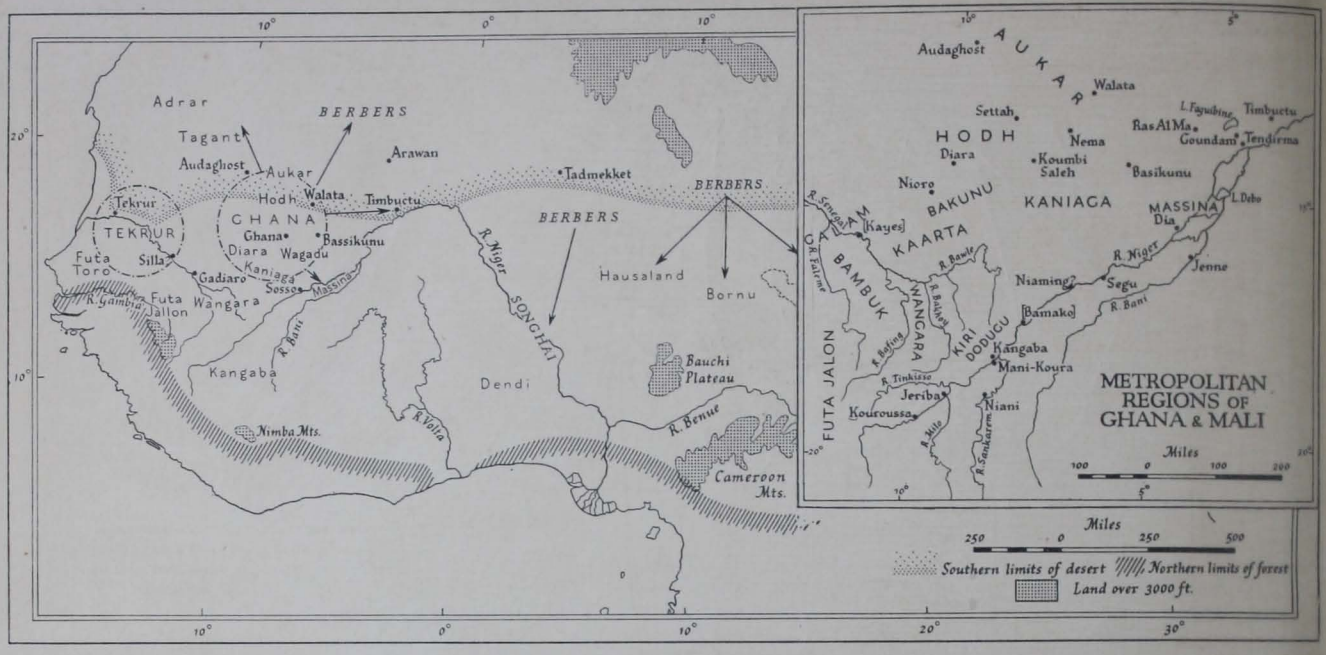
(13) RELATIONS BETWEEN NORTH AFRICA AND THE SUDAN DURING THE ERA OF THE GREAT CAMEL CARAVANS, Vth TO XVIIIth CENTURIES

This map does not picture the trans-Saharan trade routes at any one particular epoch. It is deliberately generalised to show how a number of routes were developed after the introduction of the camel into North Africa (a process which was complete by about the IVth century) to link the major trading centres of North Africa (e.g. Morocco, Tunisia, Egypt) with equivalent centres which emerged in the Sudan, between the desert and the forest (e.g. the Mande country to the west of the Niger bend, Hausaland, Bornu-Kanem, etc.). In such areas, as is shown in the following maps, states and empires of considerable importance often arose around such major commercial cities as Ghana, Mali, Gao, etc.

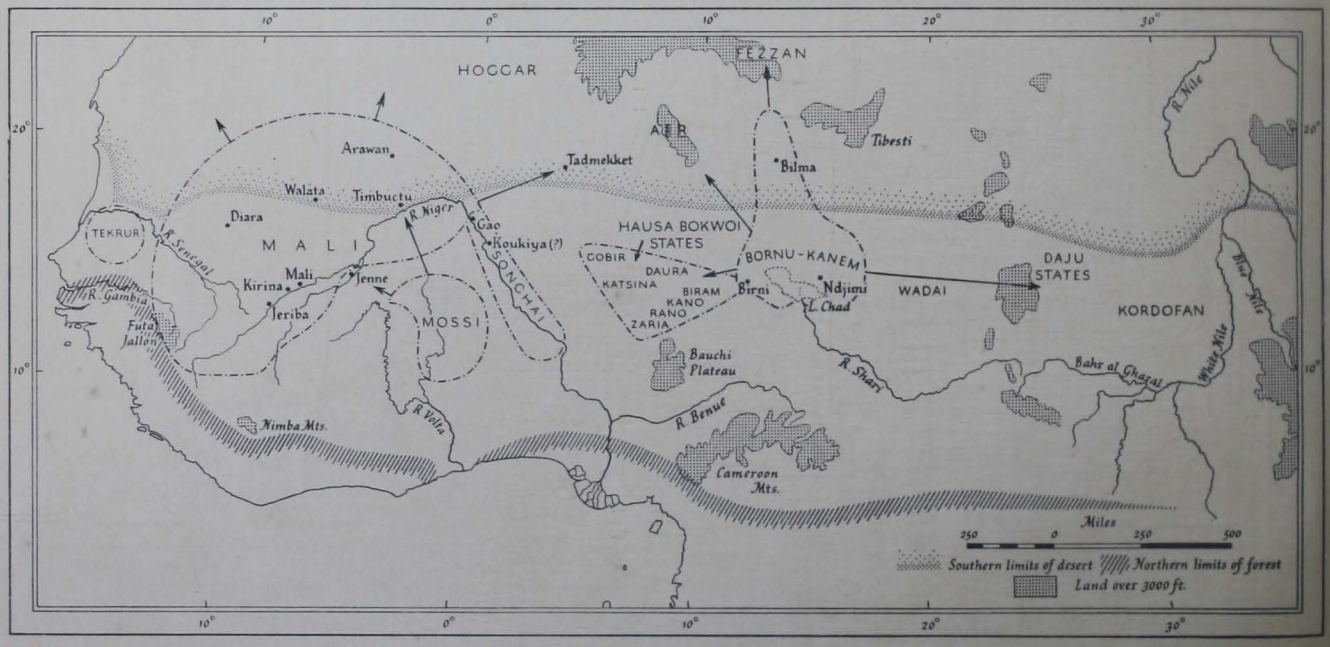
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(14)–(17) STATES OF THE SUDAN, XIth TO XVIIIth CENTURIES (pp. 18 and 19)

It is not possible to indicate precise boundaries for the states and empires of the Sudan shown on these four maps (pp. 18 and 19). Accurate information about these boundaries is often inadequate or lacking, and in any case the boundaries themselves were often in a state of flux. These Sudanese states and empires were commonly built up by a comparatively small ruling group exerting their power over, and levying tribute on, less powerful peoples around them. The effective boundaries of empire therefore tended to vary with variations in the activity and strength of the rulers and their armies. Consequently the nuclei of these states and empires, i.e. the areas over which the central authority was more or less constantly effective, are shown within a boundary line, often shown entirely conventionally as a circle, and arrows indicate the directions along which power of influence were less regularly or effectively extended.



(14) AREAS OF POWER OF THE STATES OF THE WESTERN SUDAN IN THE XIth CENTURY



(15) AREAS OF POWER OF SUDANESE STATES IN THE MIDDLE OF THE XIVth CENTURY

See p. 17 for general note to maps (14) to (17).

The inset to Map No. 14 shows in greater detail the region in which were situated the several capital cities of Ghana and Mali. It is known that the Mande empire of Mali had a number of successive capitals, first in the region of Kiri and Dodugu, the original homeland, and then, from the time of the great expansion begun under Sundiata (*c.* 1230–55) onwards, at least two more, for which sites have been sug-



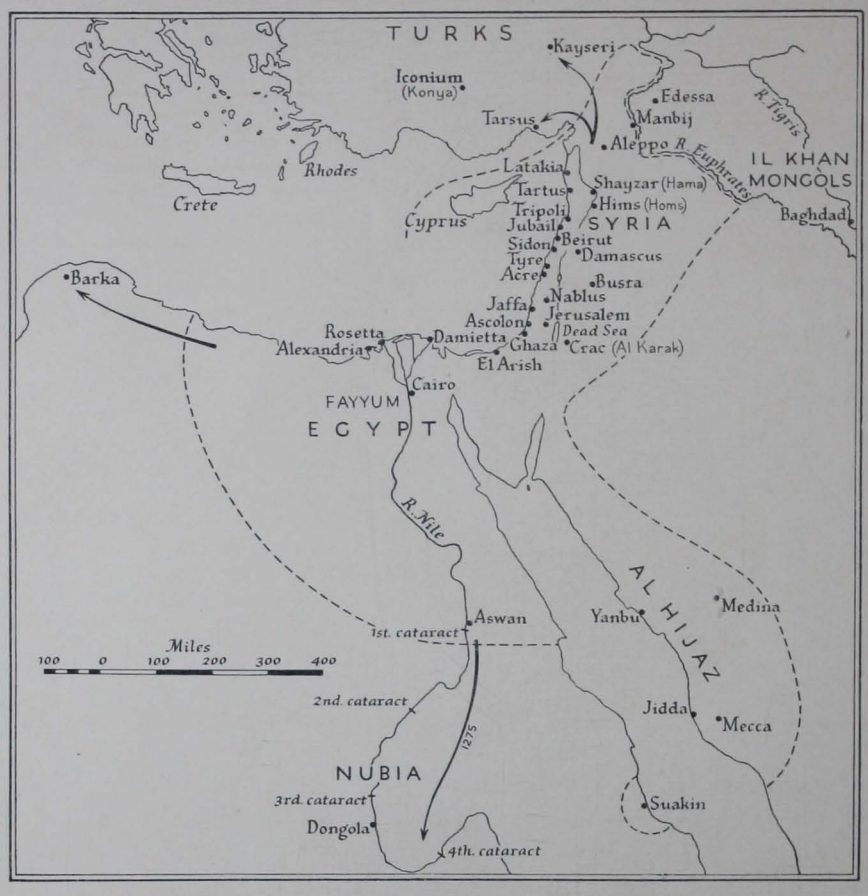
(16) AREAS OF POWER OF SUDANESE STATES IN THE XVIth CENTURY



(17) AREAS OF POWER OF SUDANESE STATES IN THE XVIIth AND XVIIIth CENTURIES

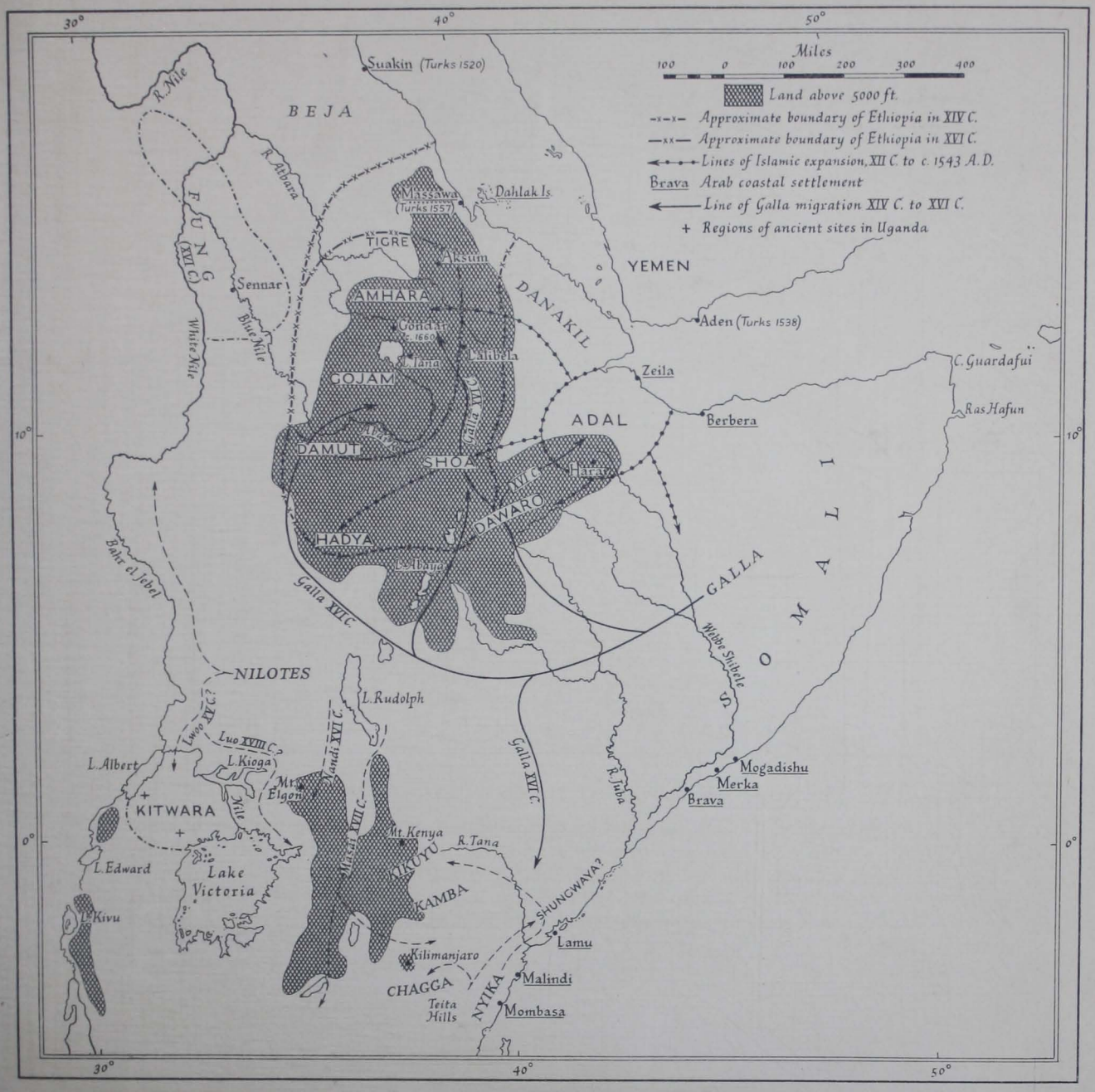
For XIXth century, see p. 39.

gested in the ruins now to be found at Jeriba, Mani-Koura, Niani, and Kangaba, each of which would have been called Mali when serving as the capital. It is likely that Ghana may also have had more than one capital, but only one ruined site, that at Koumbi Saleh, has been confidently identified as the city sacked by Sudiata in 1240.



(18) THE MAMLUK EMPIRE AT ITS GREATEST EXTENT, 1260–1340

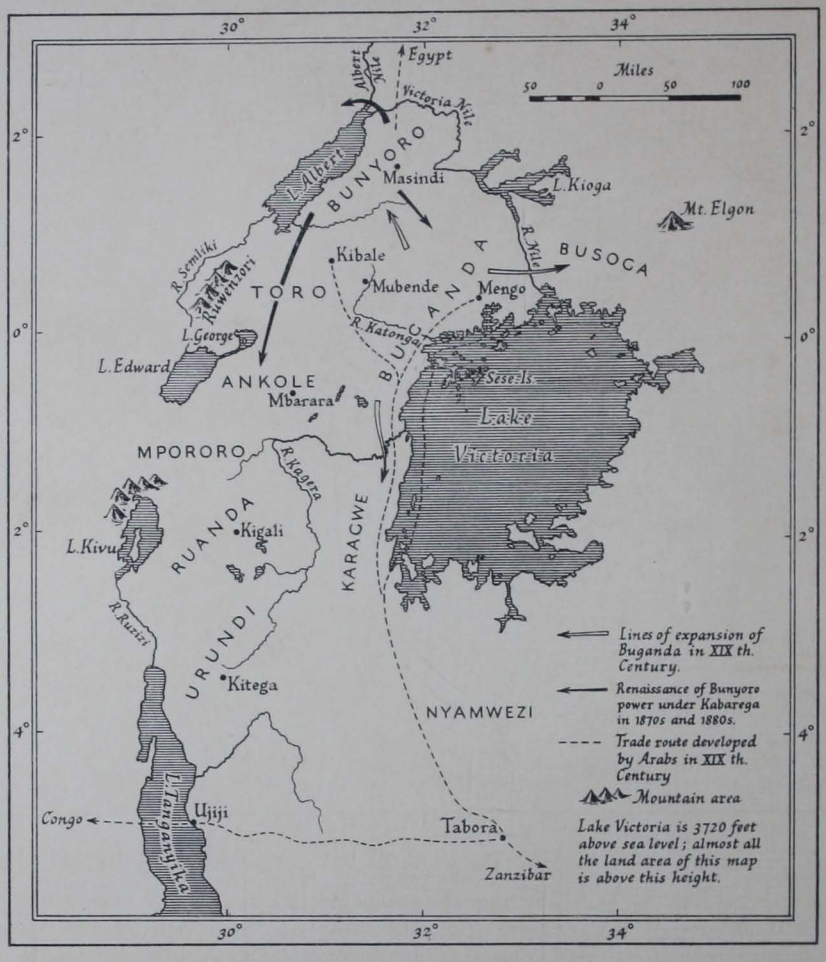
After the decline of the Fatimid power and the collapse of their empire, Egypt passed into the hands of Saladin (1169–93), a Kurdish general from Syria, whose main aim was to build up a strong Muslim power in Egypt and Syria to oppose the Crusaders. His work was continued and the Christians finally expelled, by the Bahri Mamluk Sultans, Baybars (1260–77), and Kala'un (1279–90) and his descendants, who also succeeded in repelling the westward advance of the Il Khan Mongols.



(19) NORTH-EASTERN AFRICA, XIIth TO XVIIth CENTURIES

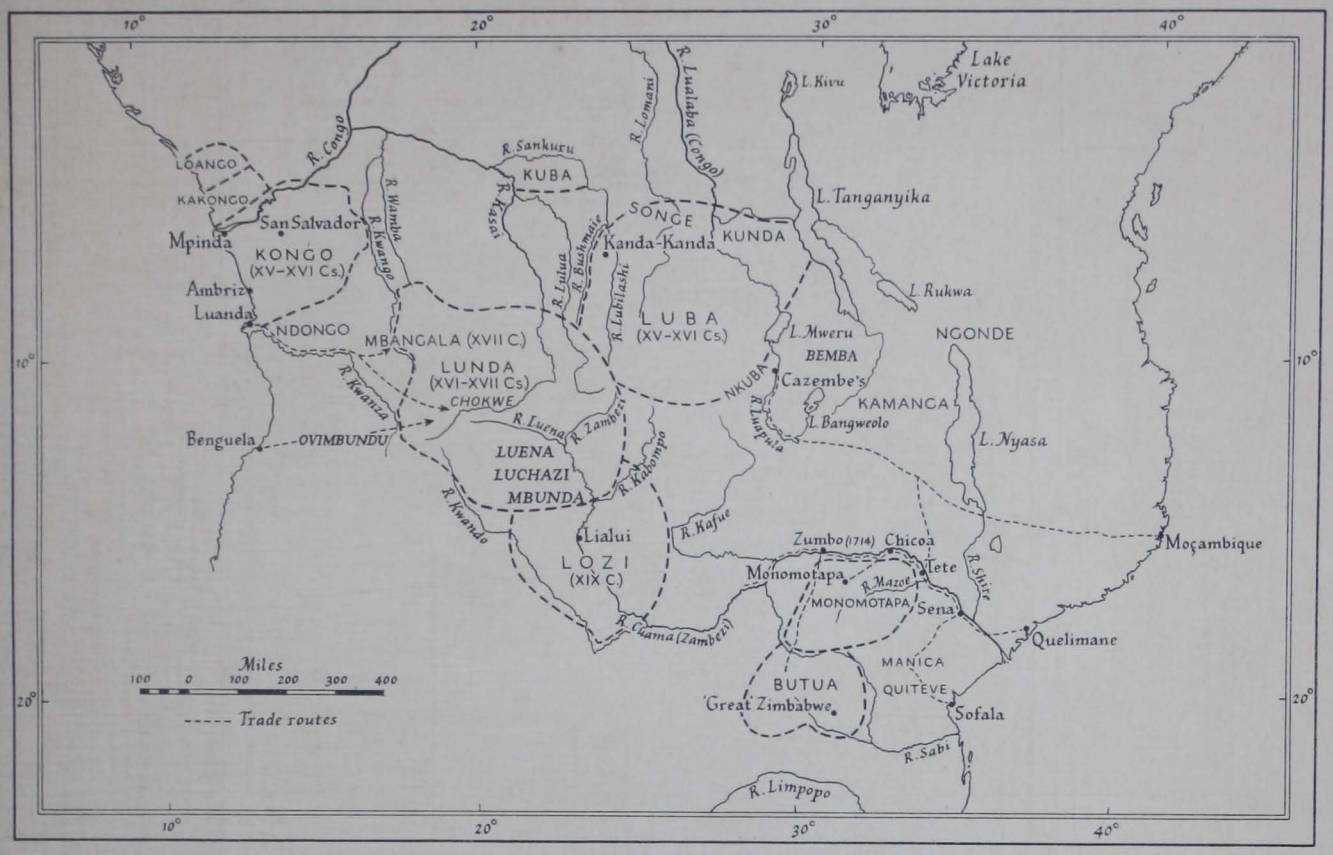
For notes on the Kitwara empire, see p. 22.

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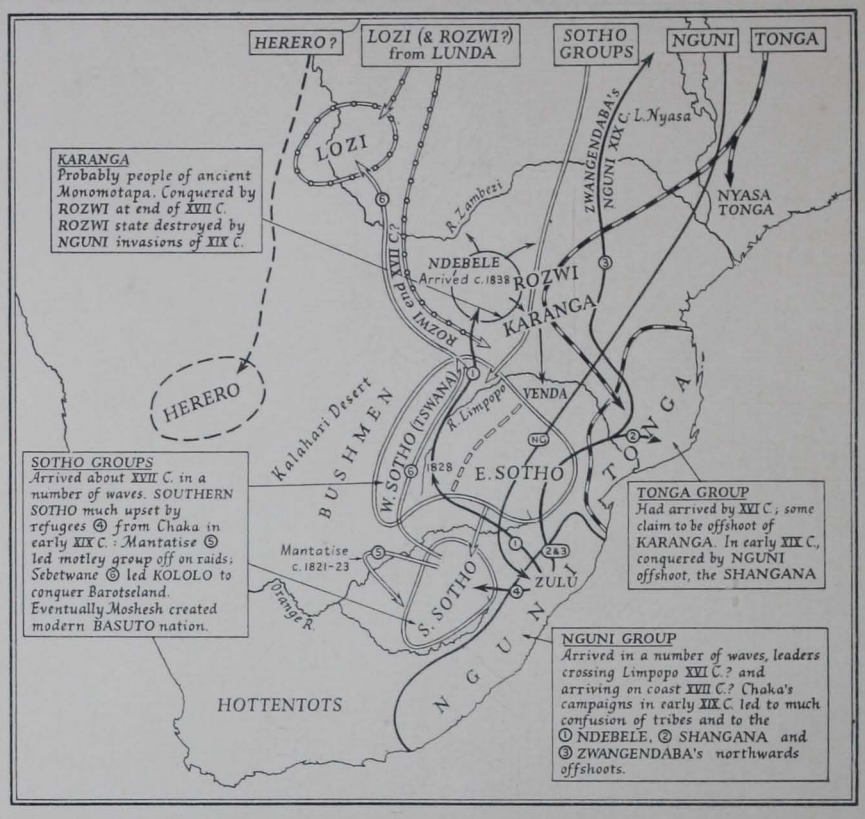
(20) BANTU STATES OF THE GREAT LAKES, XVIIIth TO XIXth CENTURIES

This map should be viewed in conjunction with the map on p. 21 on which is shown the Kitwara empire established by the Bachwezi, one of the Hima clans, during the XIIIth, XIVth, and XVth centuries. During the late XVth century the Bachwezi were ousted by the Lwoo, or Babito, invaders, who set up the still-surviving kingdoms of Bunyoro, Buganda, Toro, and Busoga. Farther south, however, Hima dynasties managed to hold out, in Ankole, Ruanda, Urundi, and Karagwe, and eventually to stem the Lwoo advance. In the north Bunyoro became the effective successor to Kitwara, though from the second half of the XVIIIth century onwards the power and extent of its kingdom declined, and Buganda, which was better situated to benefit from the mid-XIXth century extension of Arab trade from the east coast, became the more important kingdom.



(21) THE CENTRAL BANTU STATES, XVTH TO XVIIITH CENTURIES

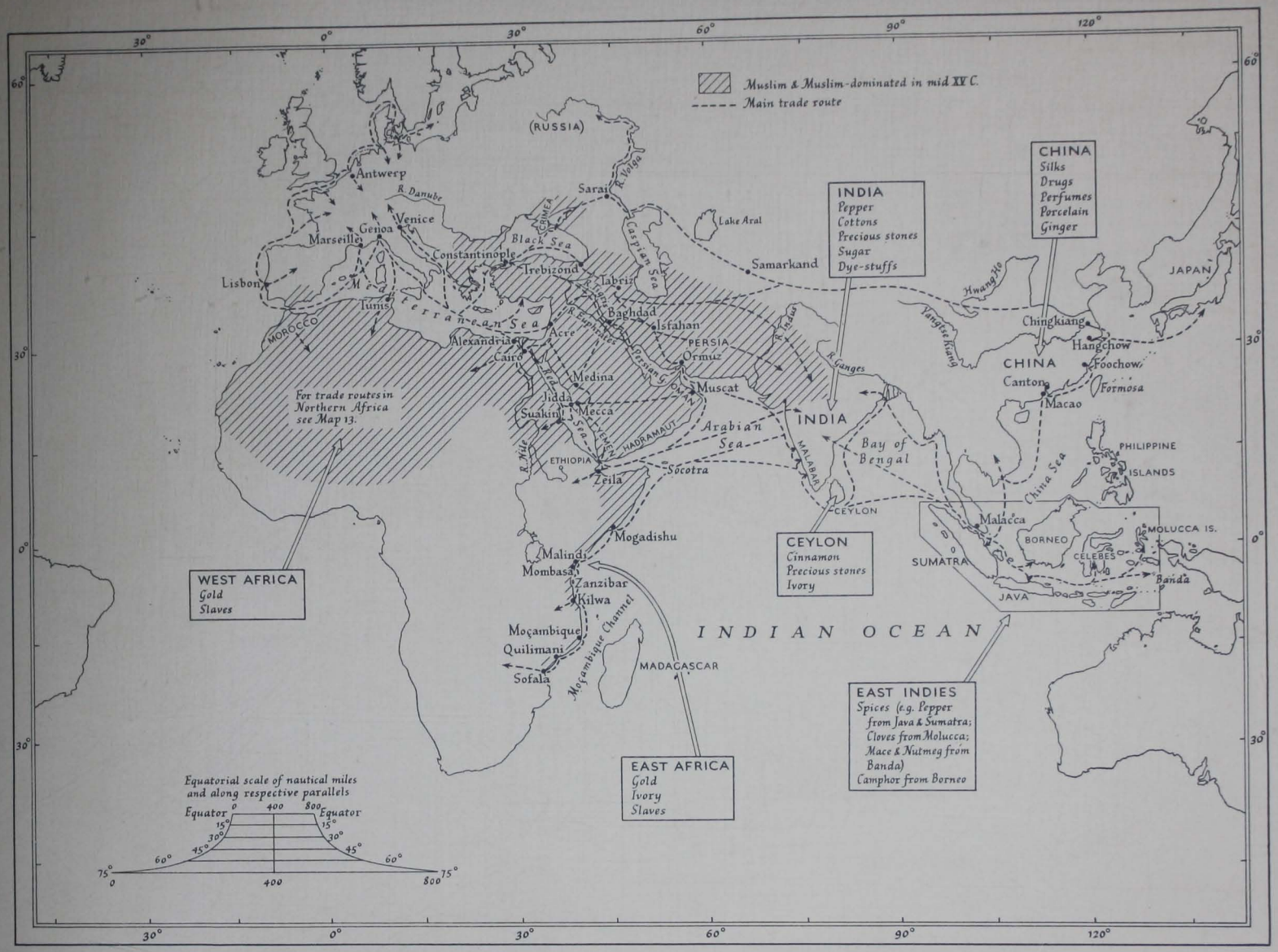
This map is not intended to do any more than to indicate the general areas of operation of the more important Bantu states of central Africa. The states shown were not necessarily contemporaneous, and dates of apogee are therefore given in brackets after the names of the principal states. The states of the Congo–Angola and Zambezi–Limpopo regions are shown in greater detail on p. 27.



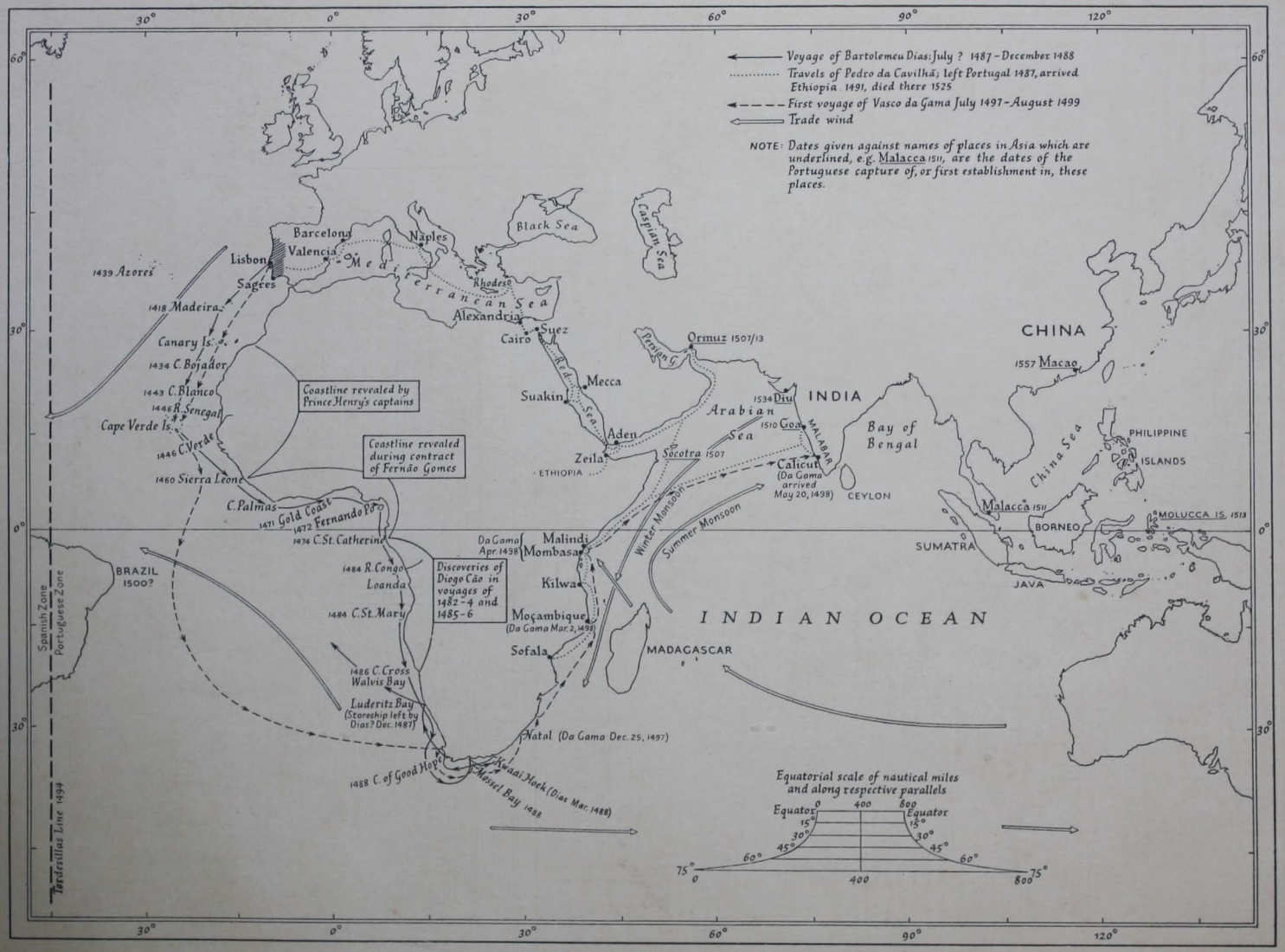
(22) MIGRATIONS OF THE SOUTHERN BANTU, XVIITH TO XIXTH CENTURIES

This map attempts to do two things: (1) to give some idea of the way in which the present Bantu peoples of southern Africa may first have arrived there; (2) to show the movements of Bantu peoples that took place in the XIXth century as a result of the clash between the Bantu and the European movements of settlement and, more immediately, the Chaka wars in the region of Natal. The movements of the Bantu prior to the XIXth century were largely outside the cognisance of Europeans, and a definitive interpretation of the surviving Bantu traditions in respect of them is extremely difficult, because of the tendency of the Bantu " tribes " themselves to fragment (e.g. the Sotho), the devastation and re-groupings occasioned by the Chaka wars and subsequent migrations such as that of the Ndebele, and the defeats and de-tribalisation inflicted on the Bantu by the Europeans from the Great Trek (p. 36) onwards. The pre-XIXth-century movements indicated on the map are therefore little more than speculative. The minor movements that took place during the XIXth century are, on the other hand, well attested historically.

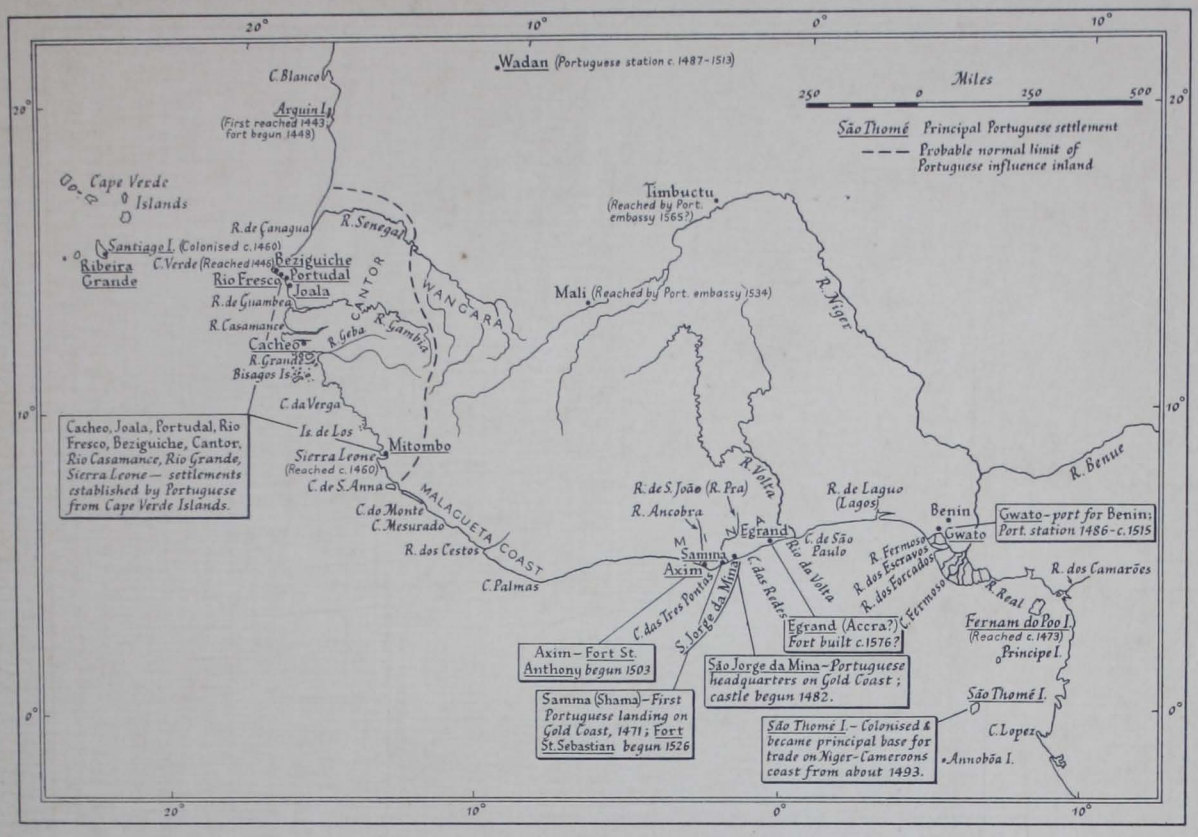
For the early migrations, major ethnic groupings are shown rather than the individual " tribes " or nations now commonly recognised. Thus the term NGUNI covers such modern tribes as the Zulu, Pondo, Tembu, Xosa, etc. Bantu names are given in modern spelling without prefixes, e.g. LOZI for *Barotse* (whose relationship with the Southern Rhodesian ROZWI is not certain), SOTHO for *Basuto* and TSWANA for *Bechuana*, TONGA for *Amatonga*, NDEBELE for *Matabele*, etc.



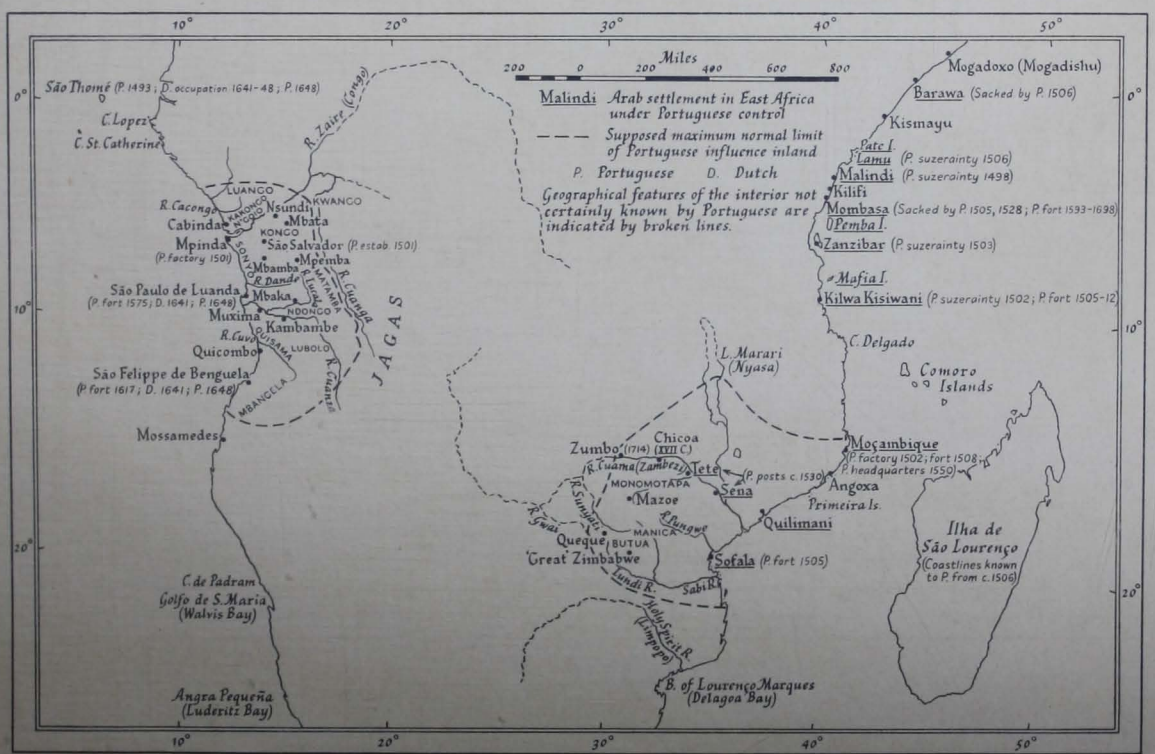
(23) THE PATTERN OF TRADE BETWEEN EUROPE, ASIA, AND AFRICA ON THE EVE OF PORTUGUESE EXPANSION



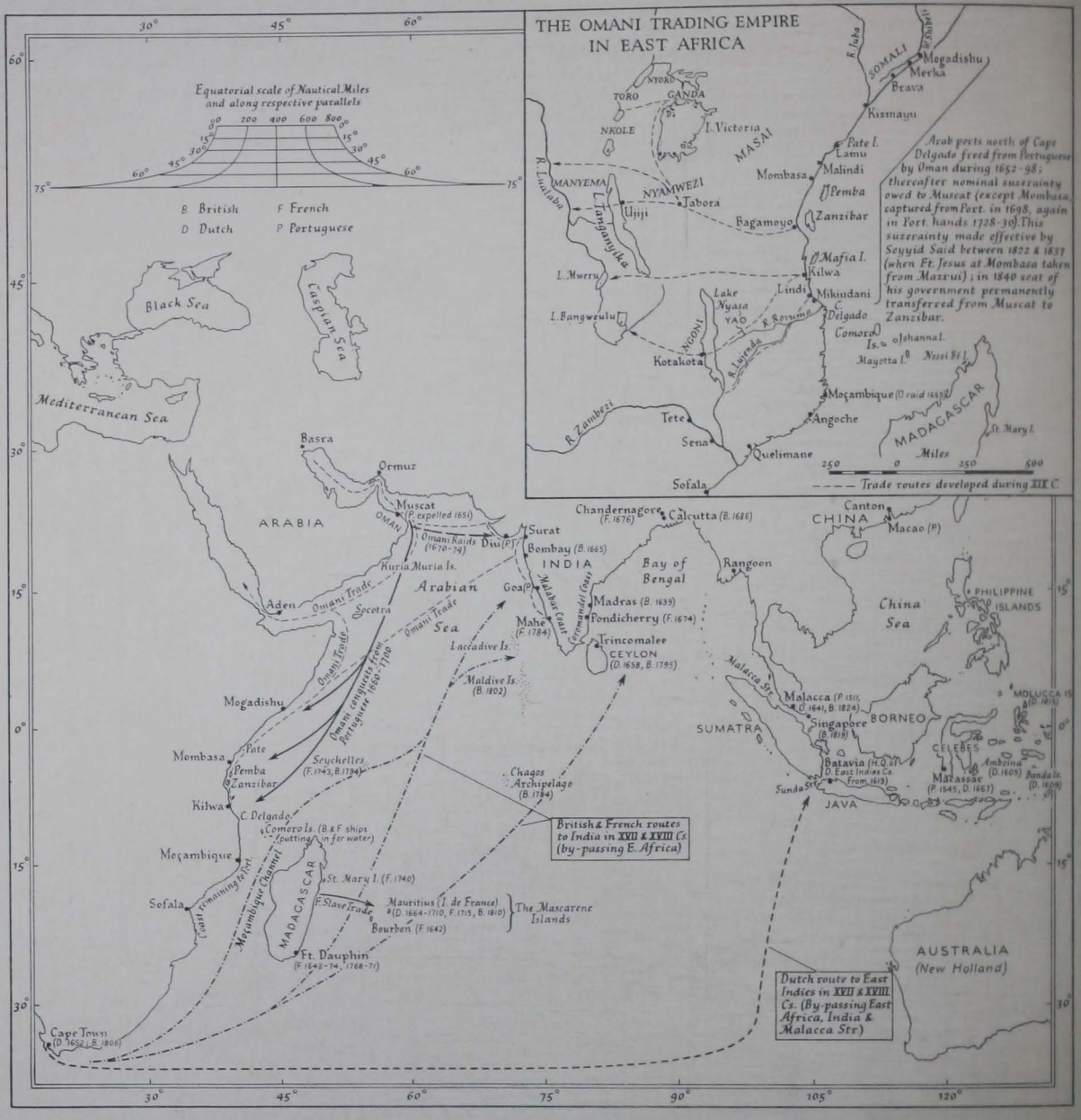
(24) PORTUGUESE MARITIME EXPANSION, XVTH TO XVITH CENTURIES



(25) THE PORTUGUESE IN GUINEA, XVTH TO XVITH CENTURIES

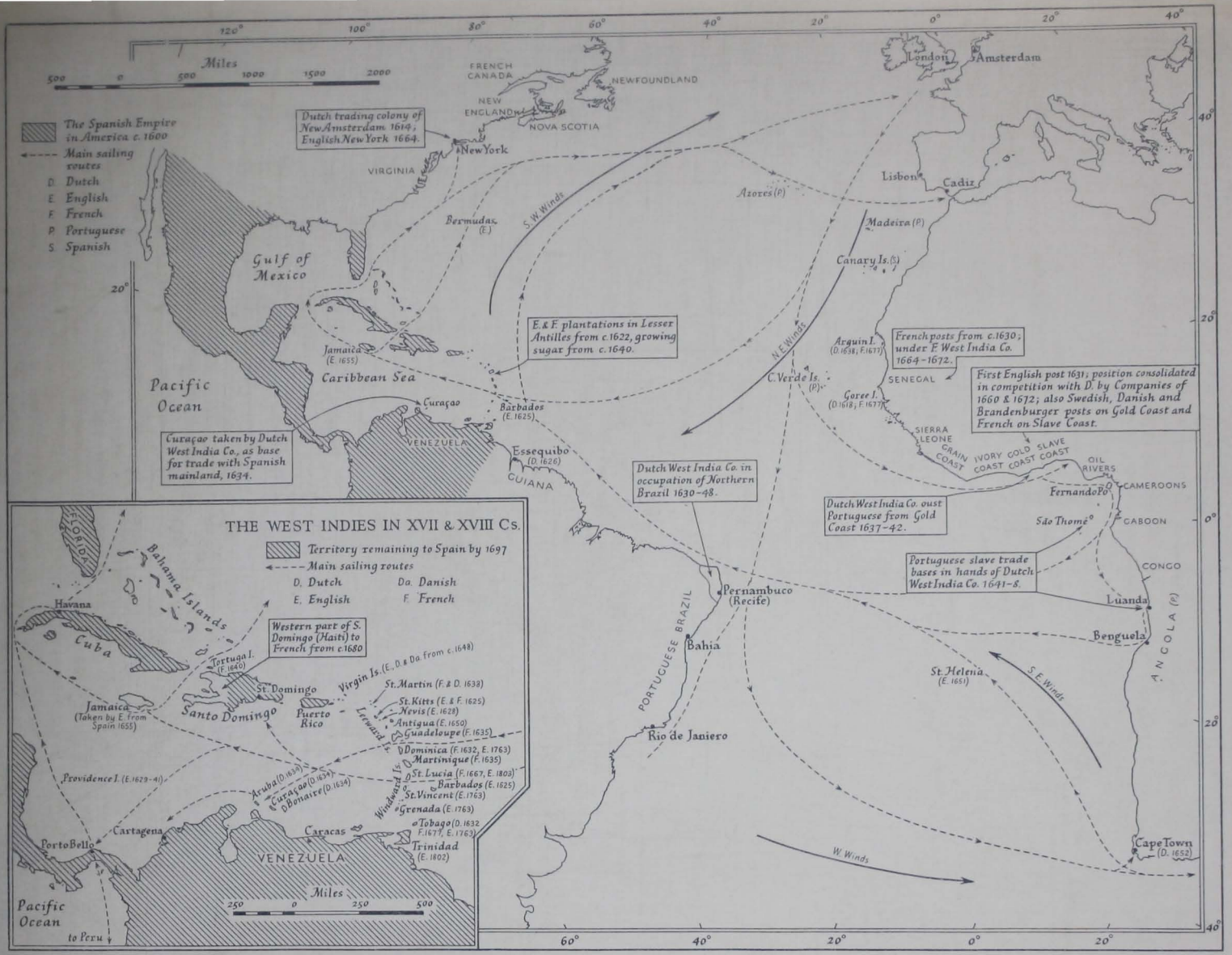


(26) THE PORTUGUESE IN AFRICA SOUTH OF THE EQUATOR, XVTH TO XVIITH CENTURIES



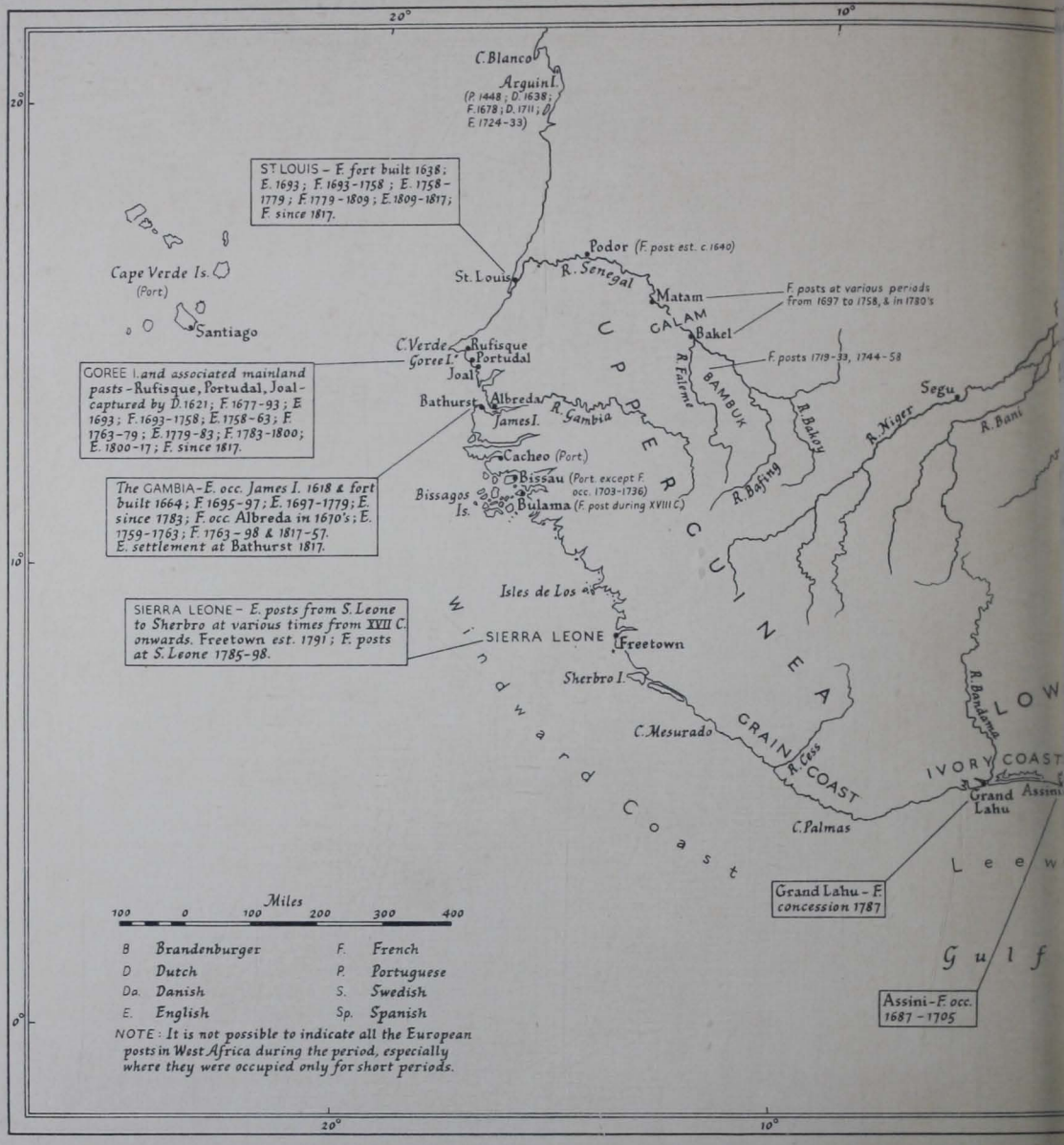
(27) COMPETITION FOR TRADE IN THE INDIAN OCEAN, XVIIth TO XVIIIth CENTURIES

With the decline of the Portuguese power in the Indian Ocean, and the development of new sailing routes, first by the Dutch to the East Indies, and then by the English and French to India, the East African coast became neglected by European traders. North of Cape Delgado, the dominant commercial interest became that of Arabs from Oman. (For trade winds, see p. 26.)



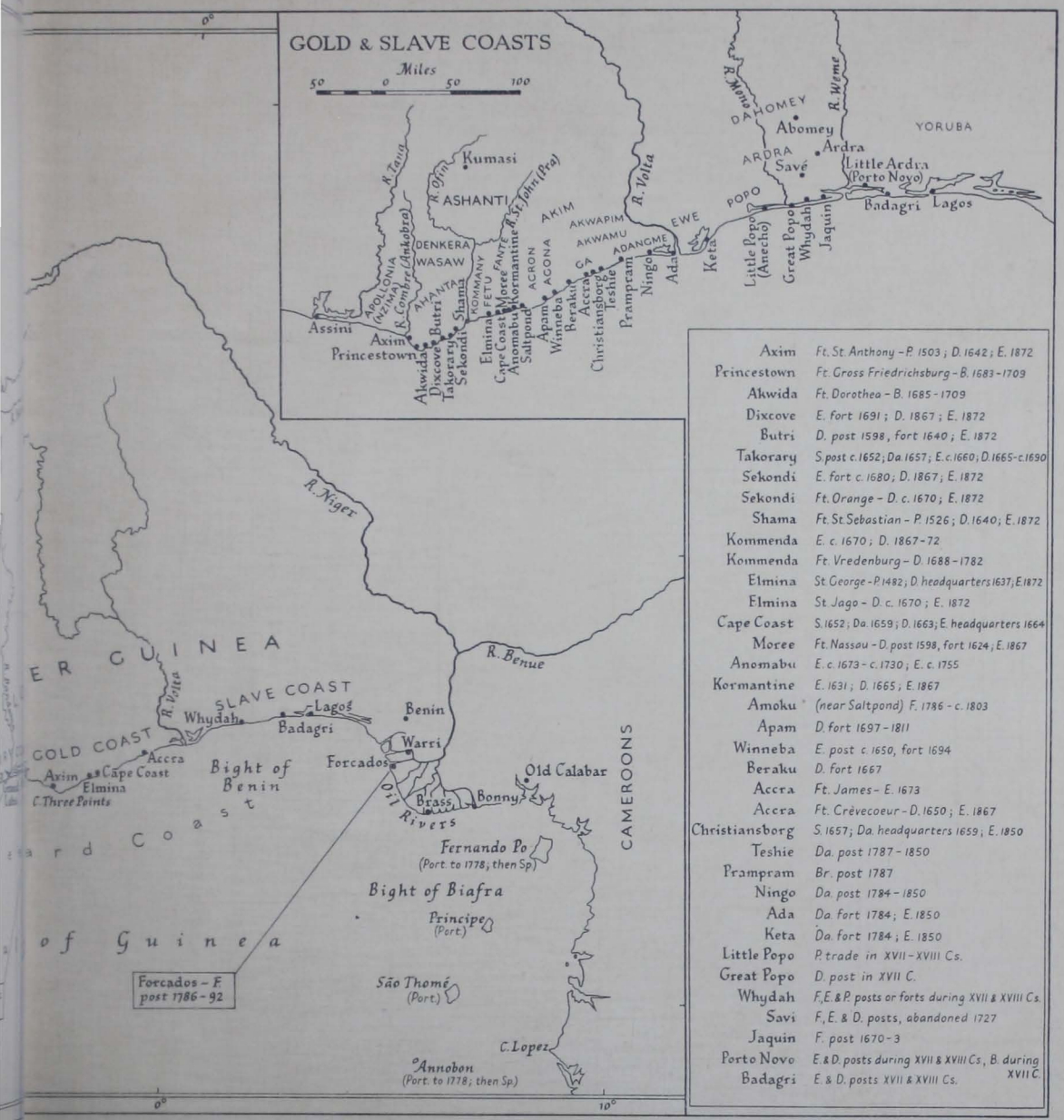
(28) COMPETITION FOR TRADE IN THE ATLANTIC, XVIITH TO XVIIITH CENTURIES

This map is intended to show the relation between European activities in West Africa in the XVIIth and XVIIIth centuries and European activities in tropical America. Having conquered part of northern Brazil from the Portuguese, the Dutch West India Company also acquired the majority of the Portuguese bases in West Africa in order to ensure a regular supply of Negro slaves for the Brazilian sugar plantations. Though the Dutch were soon expelled by the Portuguese from Brazil and from many of their West African acquisitions also, Dutch destruction of Spanish naval power in American waters had enabled English and French colonists to settle in the Caribbean. The latter were encouraged by the Dutch to embark on sugar planting, the Dutch supplying the capital and slaves needed. In the latter part of the XVIIth century, as part of their general reaction against the domination of Atlantic trade by the Dutch, the English and French entered the slave-trade and acquired West African bases for themselves. Thereafter, in the XVIIIth century, Anglo-French rivalry in the West Indies is reflected in competition for the West African slave-trade and for the bases from which slaves were exported to the West Indies.



(29) EUROPEANS IN WEST AFRICA,

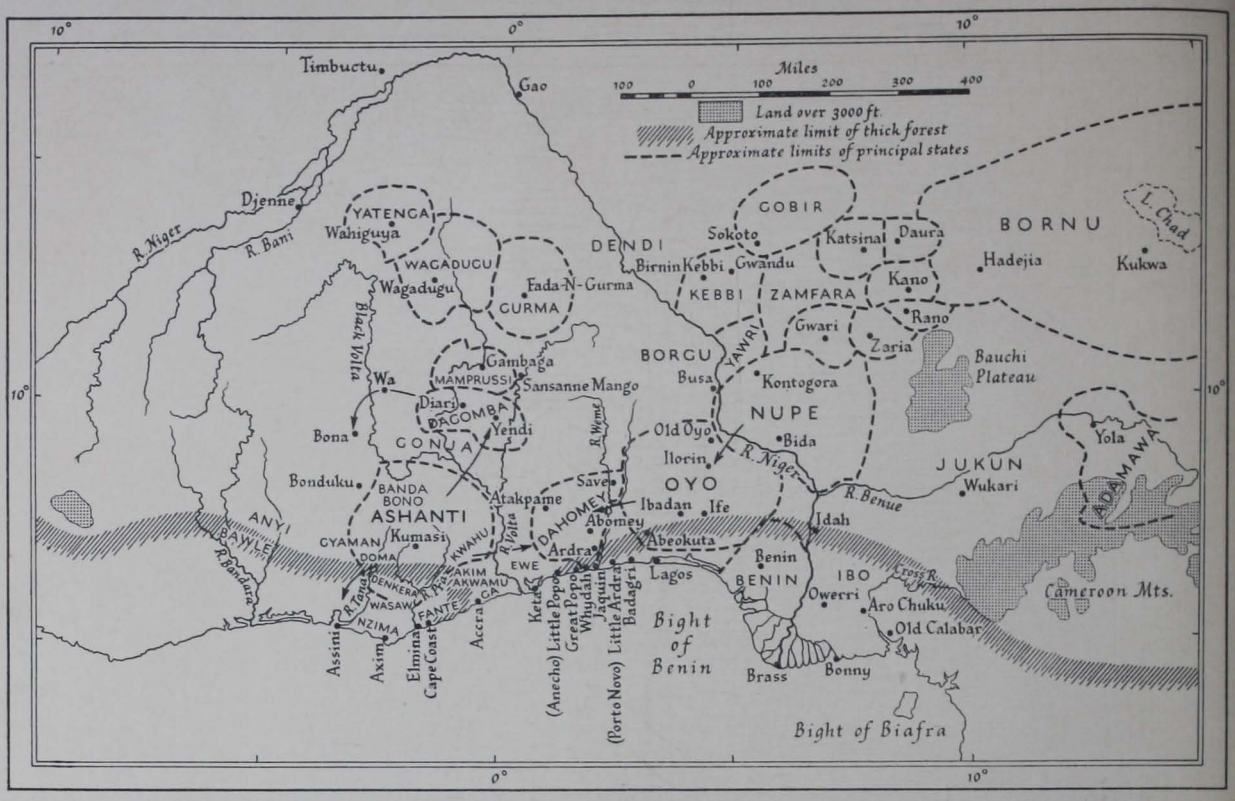
Note that, with the exception of the French attempts to develop trade up the River Senegal, attracted trading bases from which slaves could be bought for export to America. While the French concentrated trade of the Gold Coast, with the result that this was the scene of the greatest concentration of European of trading operations farther east into the Gulf of Guinea and beyond. Here trade was conducted on the type were not built.



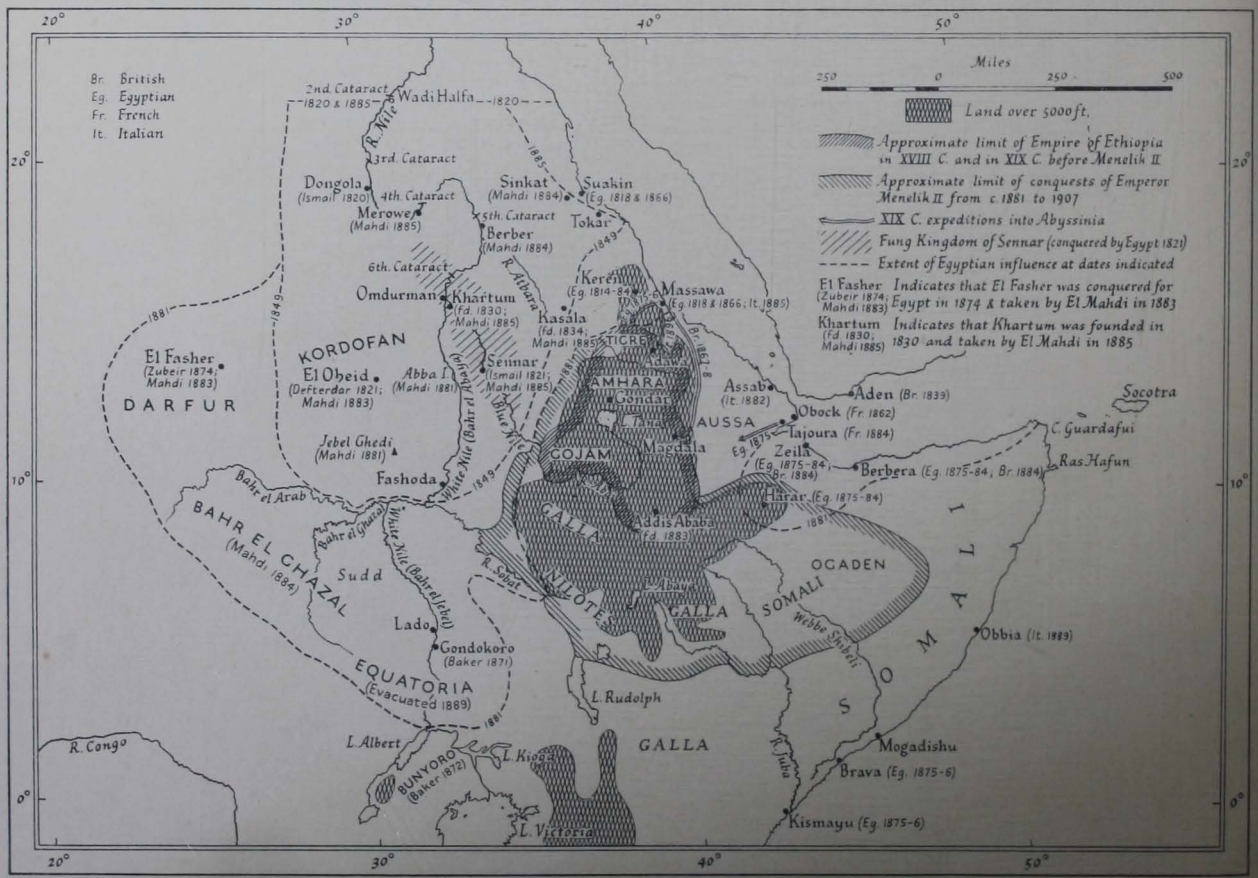
Axim	Ft. St. Anthony – P. 1503; D. 1642; E. 1872
Princestown	Ft. Gross Friedrichsburg – B. 1683–1709
Akwida	Ft. Dorothea – B. 1685–1709
Dixcove	E. fort 1691; D. 1867; E. 1872
Butri	D. post 1598, fort 1640; E. 1872
Takorary	S. post c. 1652; Da. 1657; E. c. 1660; D. 1665–c. 1690
Sekondi	E. fort c. 1680; D. 1867; E. 1872
Sekondi	Ft. Orange – D. c. 1670; E. 1872
Shama	Ft. St. Sebastian – P. 1526; D. 1640; E. 1872
Kommenda	E. c. 1670; D. 1867–72
Kommenda	Ft. Vredenburg – D. 1688–1782
Elmina	St. George – P. 1482; D. headquarters 1637; E. 1872
Elmina	St. Jago – D. c. 1670; E. 1872
Cape Coast	S. 1652; Da. 1659; D. 1663; E. headquarters 1664
Moree	Ft. Nassau – D. post 1598, fort 1624; E. 1867
Anomabu	E. c. 1673 – c. 1730; E. c. 1755
Kormantine	E. 1631; D. 1665; E. 1867
Amoku	(near Saltpond) F. 1786 – c. 1803
Apam	D. fort 1697–1811
Winneba	E. post c. 1650, fort 1694
Beraku	D. fort 1667
Accra	Ft. James – E. 1673
Accra	Ft. Crèvecoeur – D. 1650; E. 1867
Christiansborg	S. 1657; Da. headquarters 1659; E. 1850
Teshie	Da. post 1787–1850
Prampram	Br. post 1787
Ningo	Da. post 1784–1850
Ada	Da. fort 1784; E. 1850
Keta	Da. fort 1784; E. 1850
Little Popo	P. trade in XVII–XVIII Cs.
Great Popo	D. post in XVII C.
Whydah	F, E. & P. posts or forts during XVII & XVIII Cs.
Savi	F, E. & D. posts, abandoned 1727
Jaquin	F. post 1670–3
Porto Novo	E. & D. posts during XVII & XVIII Cs, B. during XVII C.
Badagri	E. & D. posts XVII & XVIII Cs.

XVIIth TO XVIIIth CENTURIES

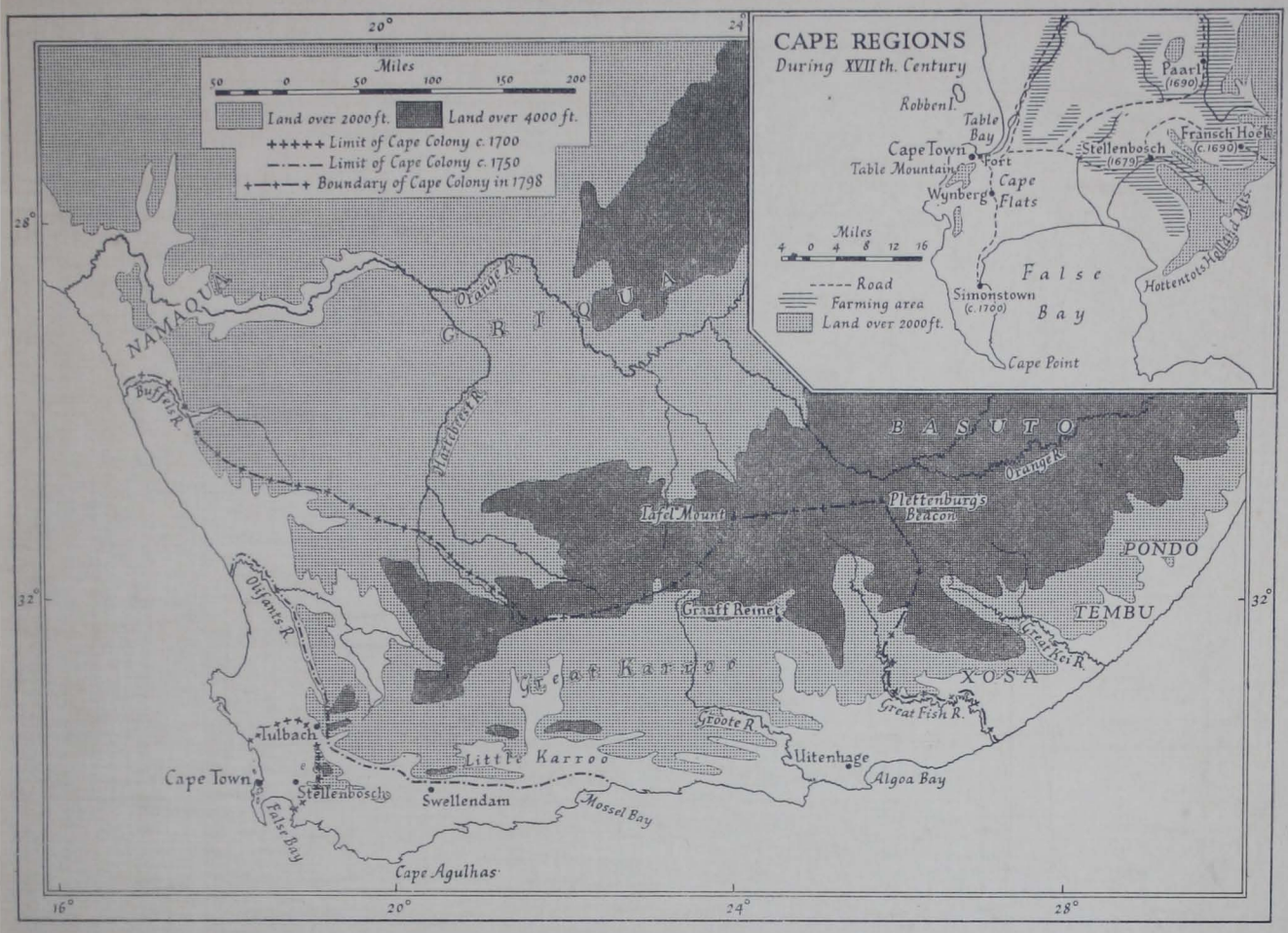
in part by its gold resources, European interests in West Africa during this period were confined to coastal on the Senegal and Upper Guinea, English and Dutch companies competed for the better-established forts in West Africa. As the demand for slaves increased, it was met principally by extending the field European side by individuals rather than by chartered companies, and permanent forts of the Gold Coast



(30) STATES OF THE GUINEA FOREST AND SAVANNA, XVIITH TO XIXTH CENTURIES



(31) NORTH-EASTERN AFRICA, XVIITH TO XIXTH CENTURIES

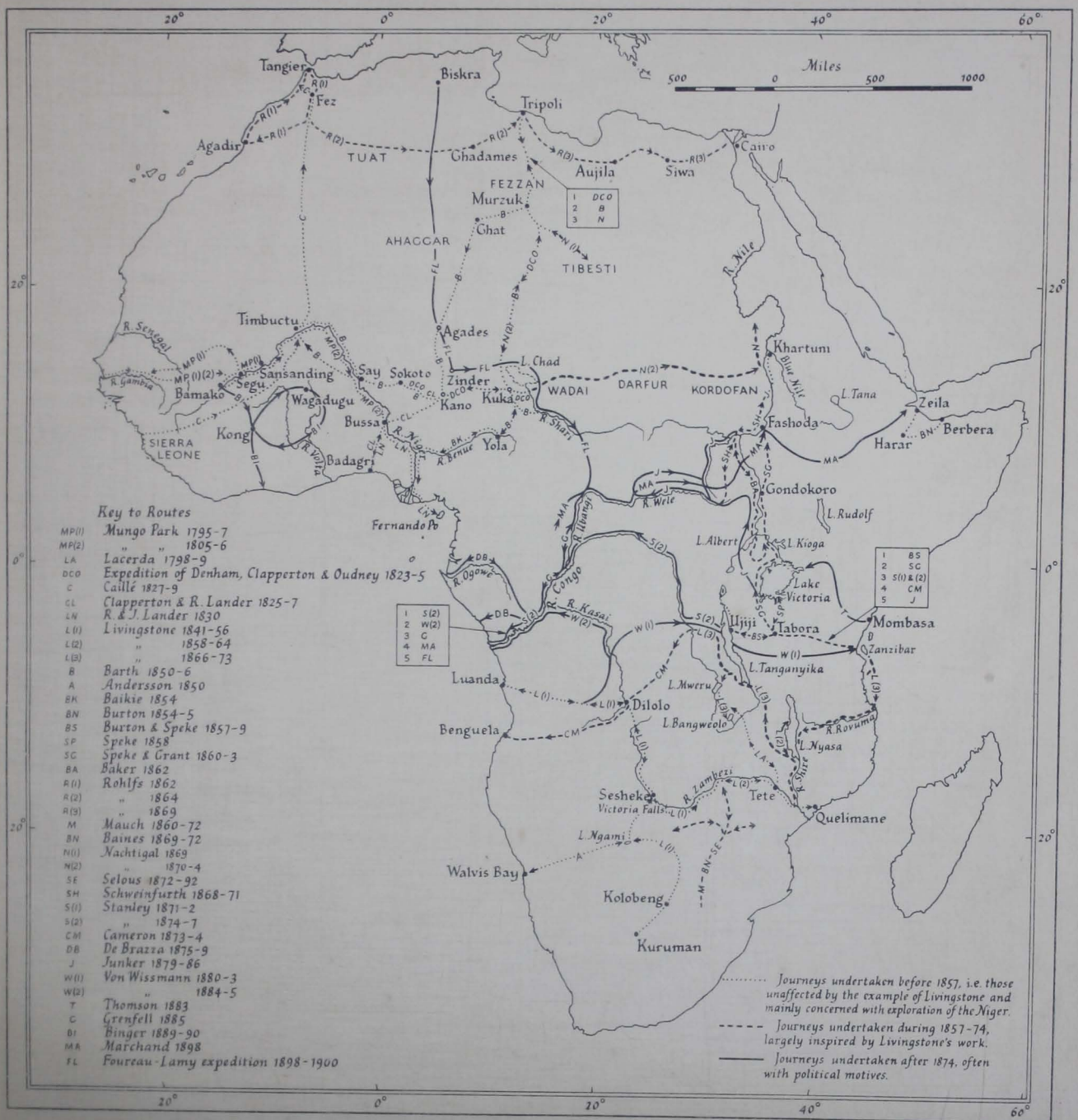


(32) THE DUTCH IN SOUTH AFRICA, XVIITH TO XVIIITH CENTURIES



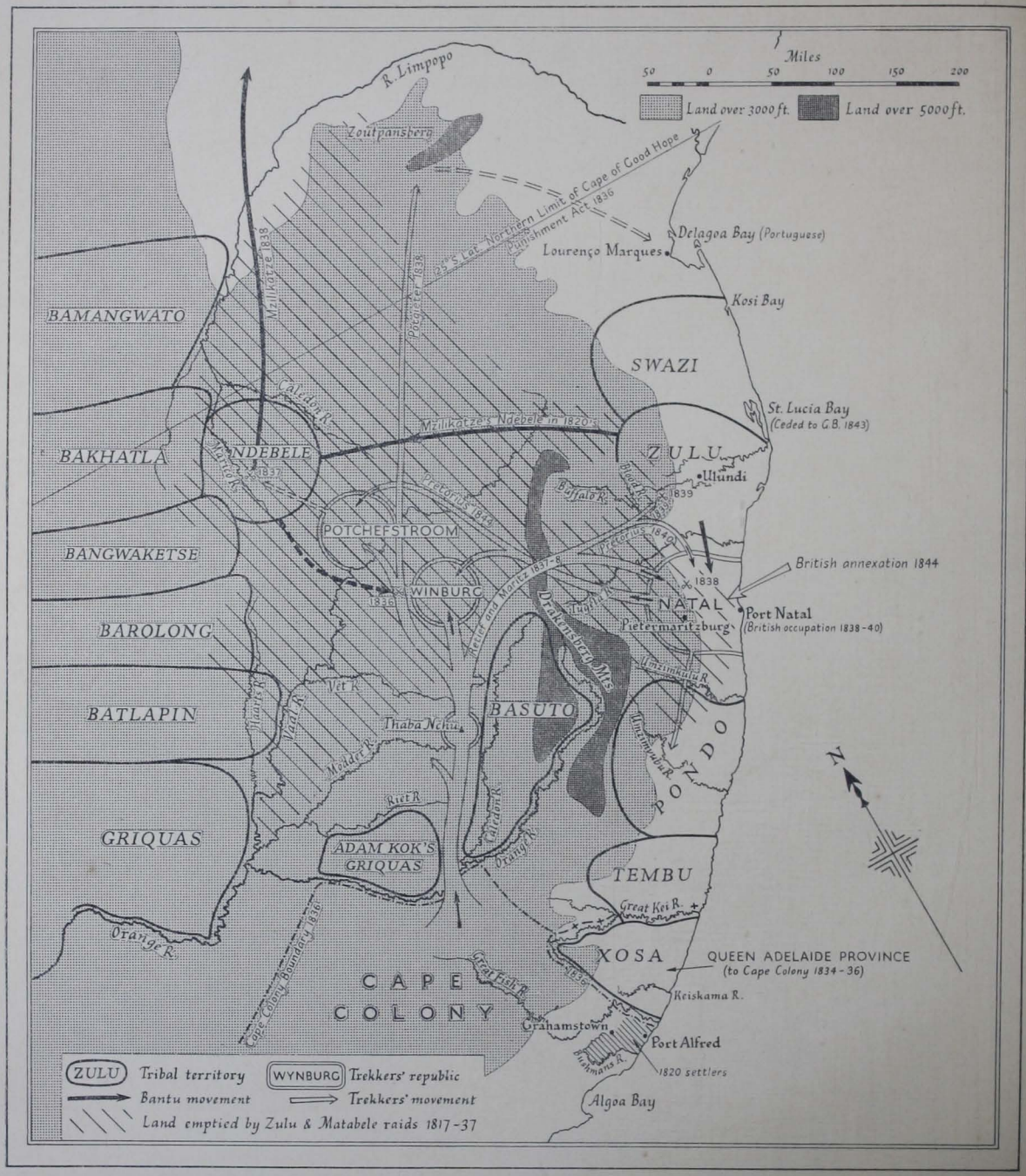
This map is based on D'Anville's map of 1749, one of the best and most accurate maps of Africa made before the era of modern European exploration c. 1750–1900. The "kingdoms" enclosed by D'Anville with boundary lines (----) were known to him in considerable detail (which cannot be reproduced on a map of this scale). The coastline was accurately known and much of the geography of North Africa and the Nile was also known. Abyssinia, Congo and Angola, and S.E. Africa were known from Portuguese activities of XVI & XVII Cs.; the Senegal region mainly from French sources of XVII & XVIII Cs. D'Anville's idea of the source of the White Nile was still derived from the notions of Ptolemy (II C); his concept of the Sahara and the Niger was derived from Arab sources. A more common European interpretation of the information available about the Niger was as shown in the inset below (based on H. Moll's map of 1710).

(33) AFRICA AS KNOWN TO EUROPEANS IN THE MID-XVIIITH CENTURY



(34) THE EUROPEAN EXPLORATION OF AFRICA, 1788–1900

It is impossible on a map of this scale to show all the journeys which made appreciable new contributions to Europe's geographical knowledge of the African continent. An attempt has been made, however, to show those journeys of major historical importance. The extent to which these were concerned, until 1874 at least, with the elucidation of the major internal waterways is noteworthy.



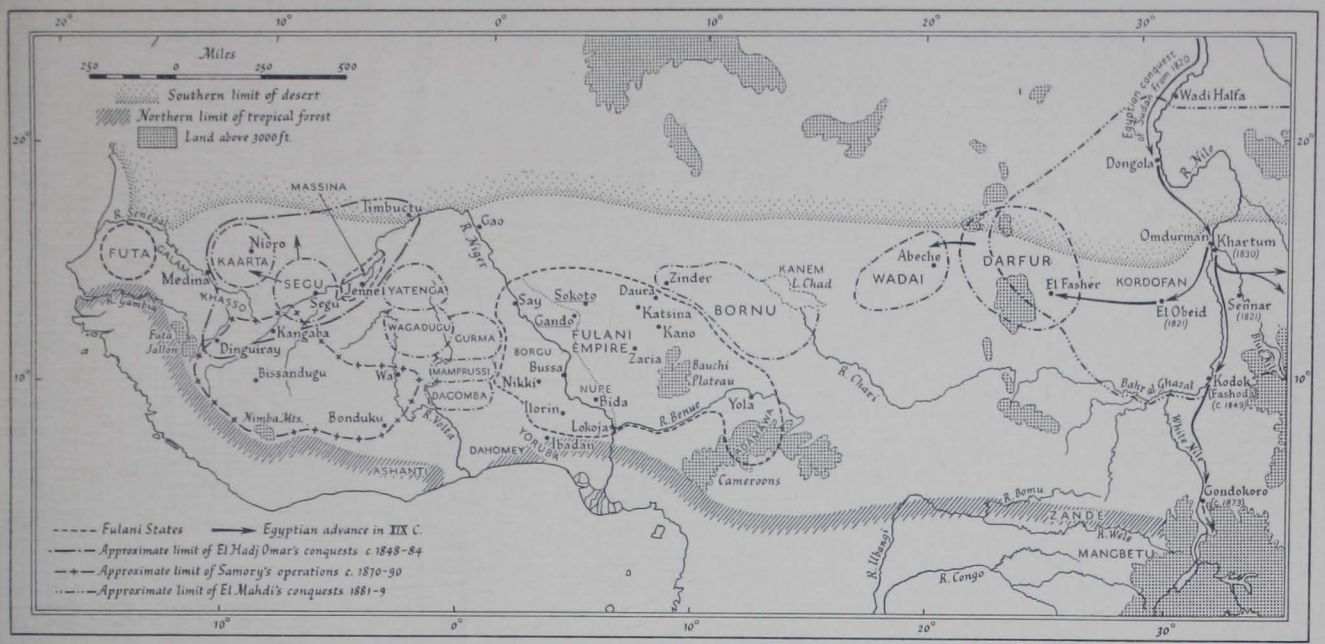
(35) THE GREAT TREK IN SOUTH AFRICA



(36) FRONTIER CHANGES IN SOUTH-EAST AFRICA IN THE XIXTH CENTURY

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25°
30°
35°
40°
10°
15°
20°
25°
30°
L. Tanganyika
Kilwa
Stevenson Road 1883
Arab slave route
W.C. Stairs & other agents of Congo Free State, 1892
L. Mweru
Kazembe
Karonga
African Lakes Co. in conflict with Arab slave traders 1887–95
Msiri
Livingstonia FCS 1894
GARENGANZE (KATANGA)
L. Bangweolo
R. Luangwa
Bandawe FCS 1881
L. Nyasa
Arab slave route
R. Rovuma
Kota Kota
YAO
FCS 1875
Barotseland: reached by white traders via Panda-ma-Tenka, 1871; Lochner Concession, 1890; B.S.A. Co. Resident, 1897.
BAROTSE
Lealui + PEM 1886
R. Shire
Mozambique
Zumbo
Blantyre + CS 1876
R. Kafue
Portuguese traders
Tete
R. Kuo
Chiromo
Shire Highlands: British consul appointed 1883; conflict between Johnston (Br) & Serpa Pinto (Port.) 1889.
Region reached by Selous (Br) and Andrade (Port.) 1889
Sesheke
R. Zambezi
MASHONA
Sena
MAKOLOLO
Salisbury (1890)
Mashonaland: Hartley, first hunter 1865; Mauch, first prospector 1866.
Linyanti
Victoria Falls
R. Chobe
B.S.A. Co. 1890–
Quelimane
African Lakes Co. from 1878
Macequece
Umtali
R. Pungwe
Andrade (Port.)
Chinde mouth of Zambezi (discovered 1889)
Panda-ma-Tenka
L. Ngami
1893
Inyati + LMS 1859
Approximate area actually occupied by MATABELE
Bulawayo
Fort Victoria
Beira
Matabeleland: white hunters and traders from 1860; Baines Concession 1873; Moffat Treaty and Rudd Concession 1888.
Tati concession gold mines 1868
BAMANGWATO
Tuli
B.S.A. Co. Pioneers' Road 1890
Jameson 1890
Northern limit of Bechuanaland Prot. 1885
Serowe
Palapye
R. Limpopo
Shoshong + 1859
Macloutsie River reached by white hunters & traders coming up through Bechuanaland c. 1825
BAKWENA
Kolobeng + LMS 1843
SOUTH AFRICAN REPUBLIC
ABAGAZA
Missionaries', traders' & hunters' road
Stellaland & Goshen
Mafeking
Pretoria
Witwatersrand Gold Mines 1886
Delagoa Bay
R. Molopo
Vryburg
R. Vaal
Kuruman + LMS 1816
1881 boundary of S.A. Republic
Dry diamond diggings 1870
Kimberley
Railhead 1885
NATAL
Durban
Orange R.
to Cape Town
Miles
100 0 100 200 300 400
Key to Missions (+)
LMS London Missionary Society
FCS Free Church of Scotland
CS Church of Scotland
PEM Paris Evangelical Mission
—S— Treaty-making journies of Alfred Sharpe, 1889–91
—T— Treaty-making journies of Joseph Thomson, 1890–1

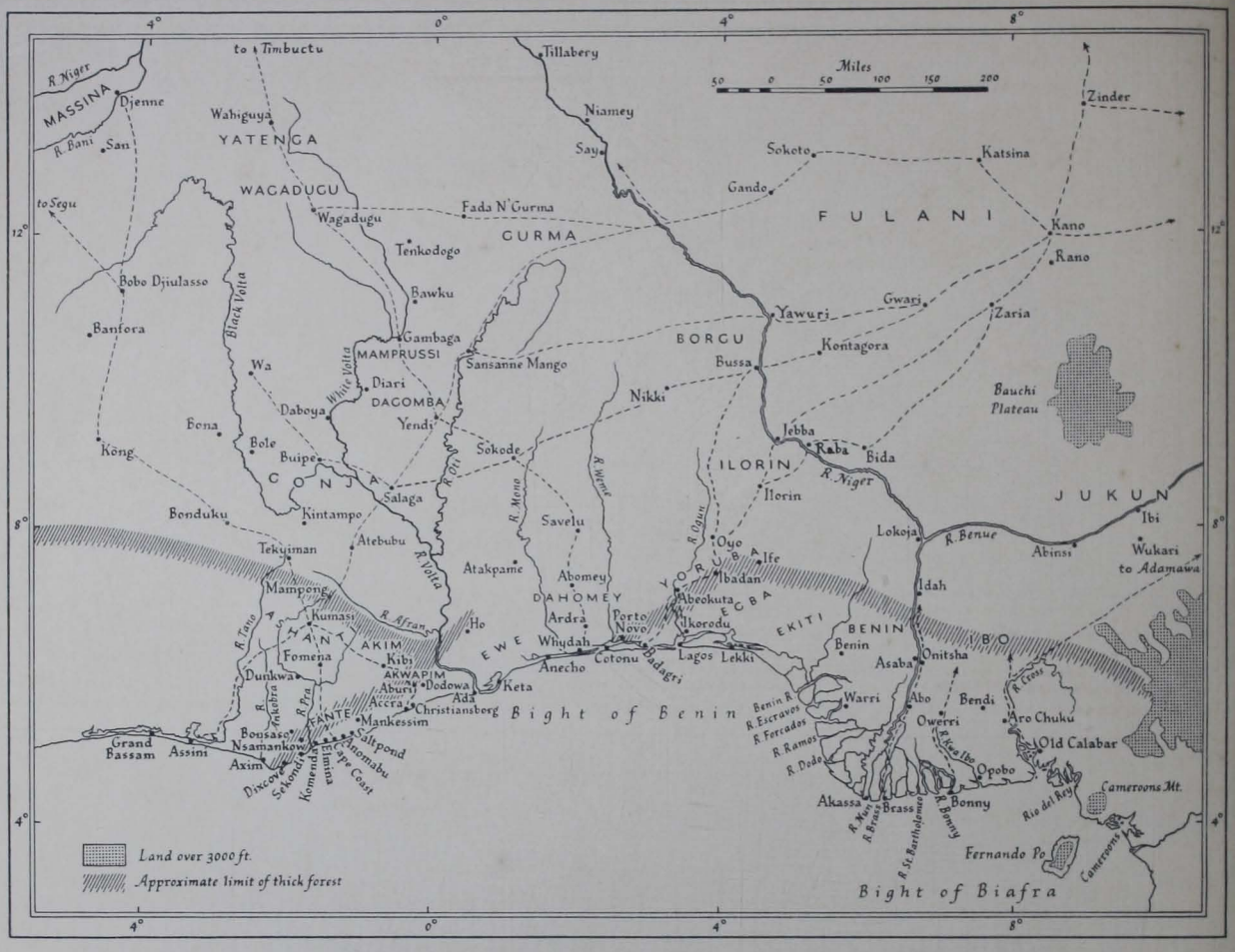


(38) THE STATES OF THE SUDAN IN THE XIXTH CENTURY

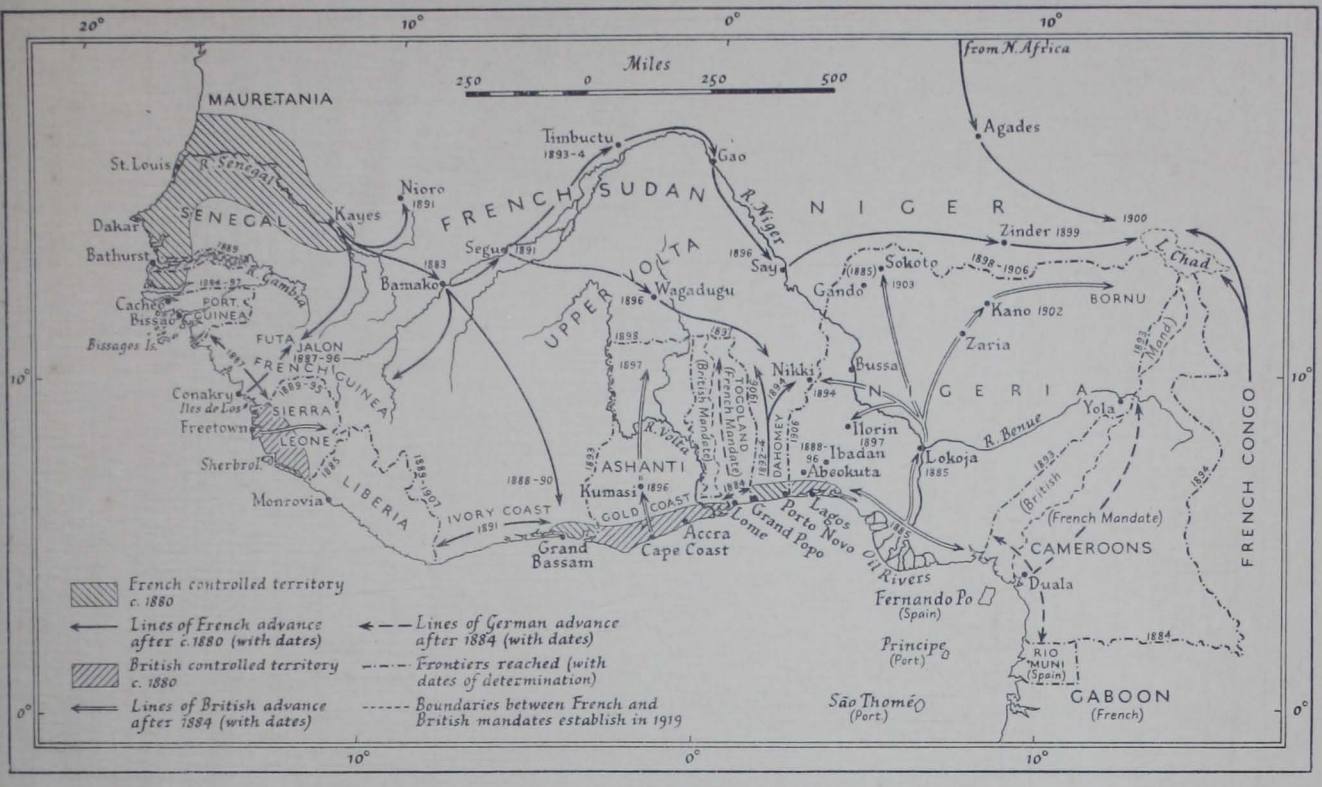
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(37) EXPANSION OF EUROPEAN TRADE AND CHRISTIAN MISSIONS IN CENTRAL AND EAST AFRICA, 1843–97 (p. 38 opposite)

Two main lines of penetration are shown. The first was northwards from the Cape Colony and began as a natural extension of the area of activity of its European settlers, with the journeys first of hunters, then of missionaries and traders. The emergence of the Boer republics with independent policies tended from the 1840s onwards to confine this line of advance to the narrow habitable strip of Bechuanaland between the republics and the Kalahari desert. Up this channel towards the Zambezi pushed the missionaries, with Livingstone in the van, and a motley crowd of hunters, explorers, traders, and concession-seekers. By the 1880s, the whole of the area south of the Zambezi and north and west of the Boer republics had been opened up by such men, and missionaries and traders had also begun to penetrate Barotseland, but their activities still remained subject to the control of the native sovereigns. With the advent of Cecil Rhodes, all these various activities began to be combined under forceful political and economic leadership. The British political power engulfed Bechuanaland (1884–85), and then in 1890 Rhodes's British South Africa Company extended the area of European settlement to the Zambezi and began to extend political power across the river into Barotseland. But the line of advance through the Bechuanaland channel had now been stretched to its limit until railways had been built, and in the meantime, as a result of Livingstone's journeys of 1853–56 and 1858–64, a second line of advance, northwestwards up the Zambezi and Shire rivers, had been begun. This was pioneered by the missionaries from 1875–76 onwards, but at first was too remote to attract to it the same weight of hunting, trading, and settling activity that had expanded up the first route from the settlement base in the Cape Colony. However, the complications resulting from the conflict between the African Lakes Company and the Arab slave-traders, and from the presence of British missionaries in the hinterland of a Portuguese coastal colony, led eventually to the British protectorate in Nyasaland, and, with the financial backing of Rhodes, to the extension of British rule into the eastern part of what was to become Northern Rhodesia. Here the two lines of advance joined together. Further advance to the north was checked by work of the agents of Leopold II's Congo Free State and by the existence of German East Africa. See p. 42.



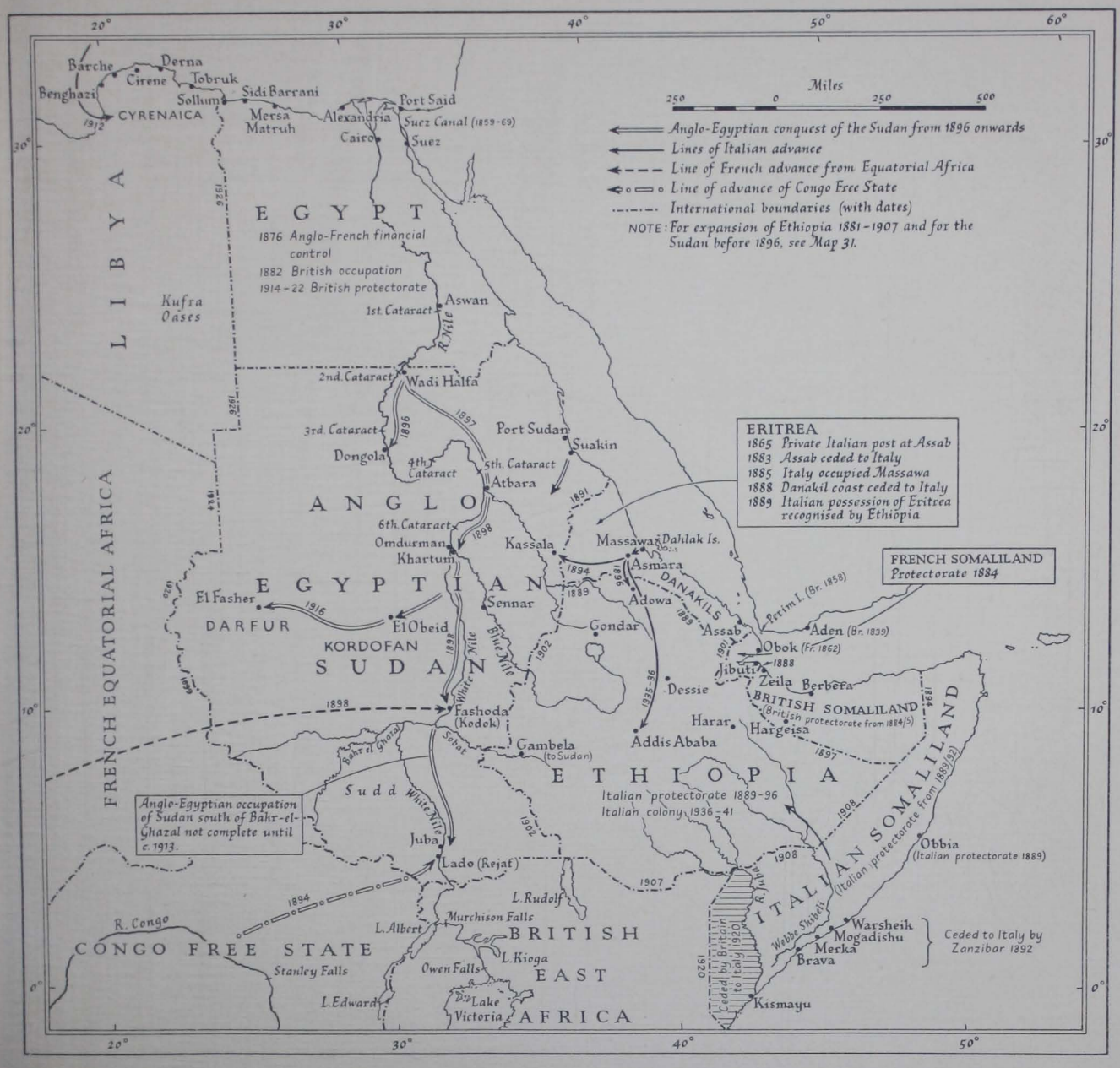
(39) THE GOLD COAST AND NIGERIA IN THE XIXTH CENTURY



(40) THE EUROPEAN ADVANCE INTO WEST AFRICA, *c.* 1880–1900

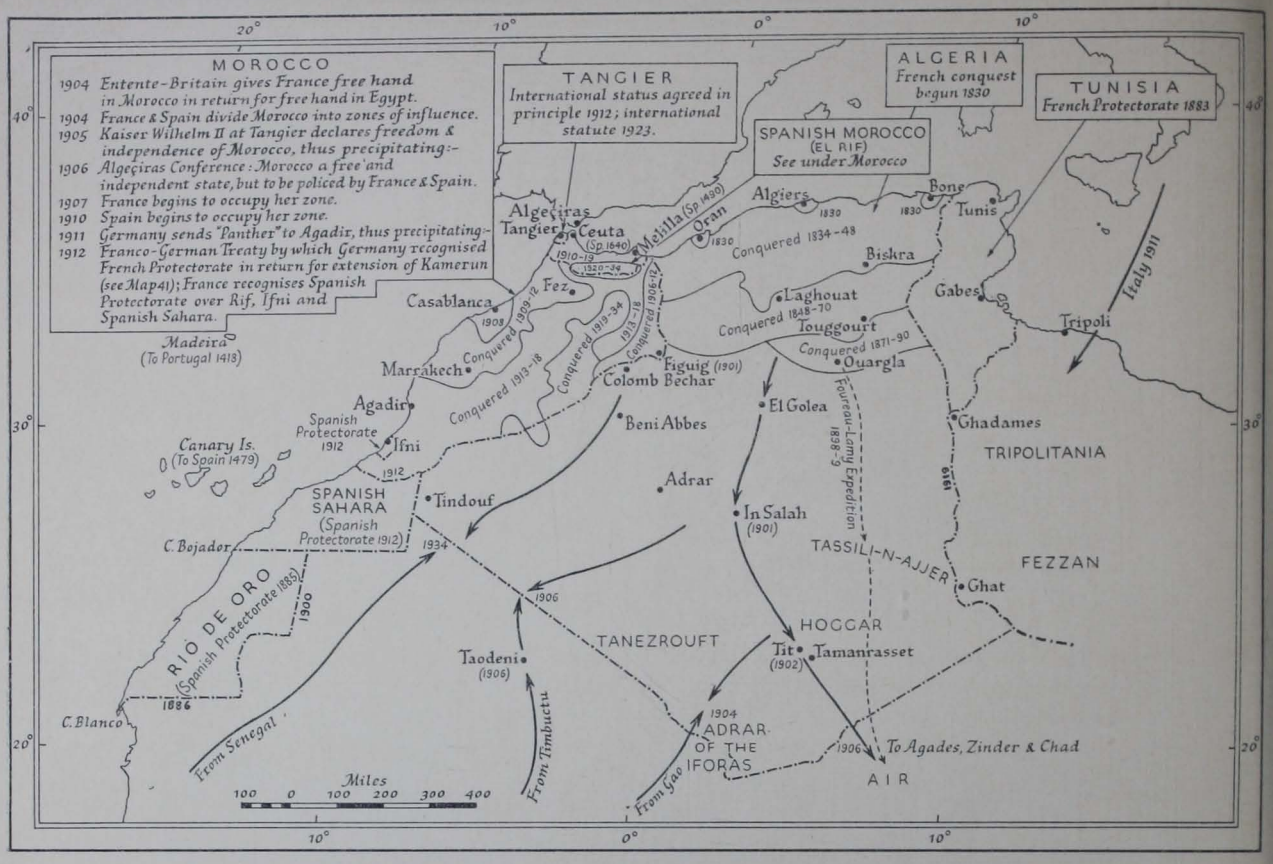


(41) THE EUROPEAN ADVANCE INTO CENTRAL AFRICA, *c.* 1884–1900

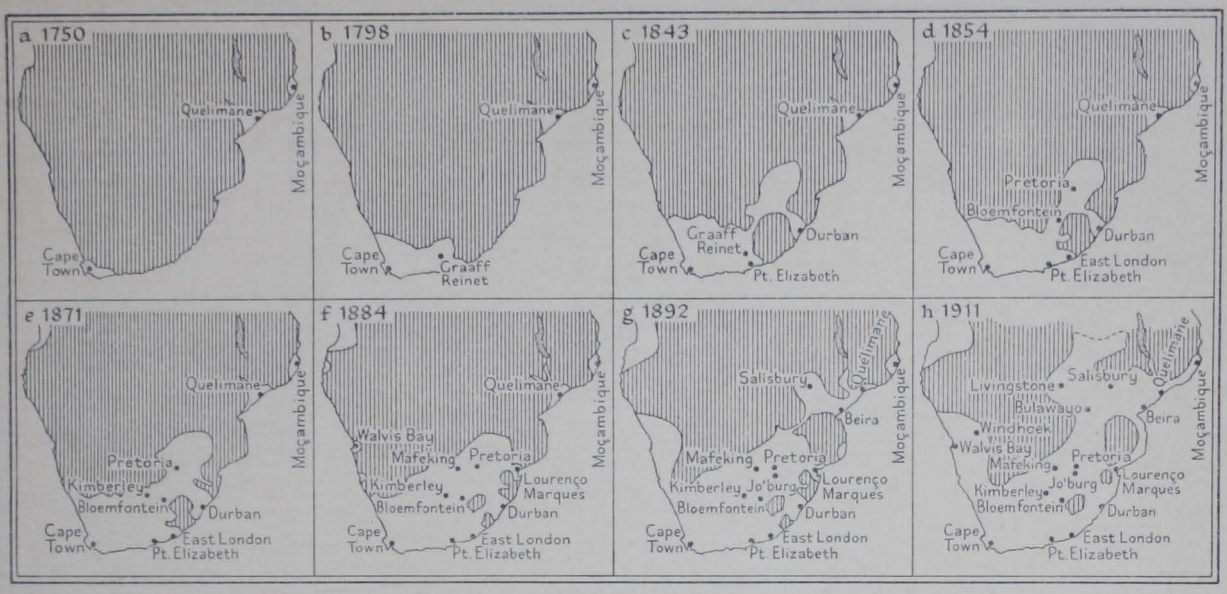


(42) THE EUROPEAN ADVANCE INTO NORTH-EAST AFRICA

Note: The British occupation of Egypt continued until 1936, when, by the Anglo-Egyptian Treaty of that year, it was limited to the Suez Canal zone (see p. 49). This was not evacuated by the British until after the Treaty of 1954. Egypt remained nominally under Turkish suzerainty until 1914, and was proclaimed a British protectorate in that year only to meet the situation created by the war of 1914–18.



(43) THE EUROPEAN ADVANCE INTO NORTH-WEST AFRICA



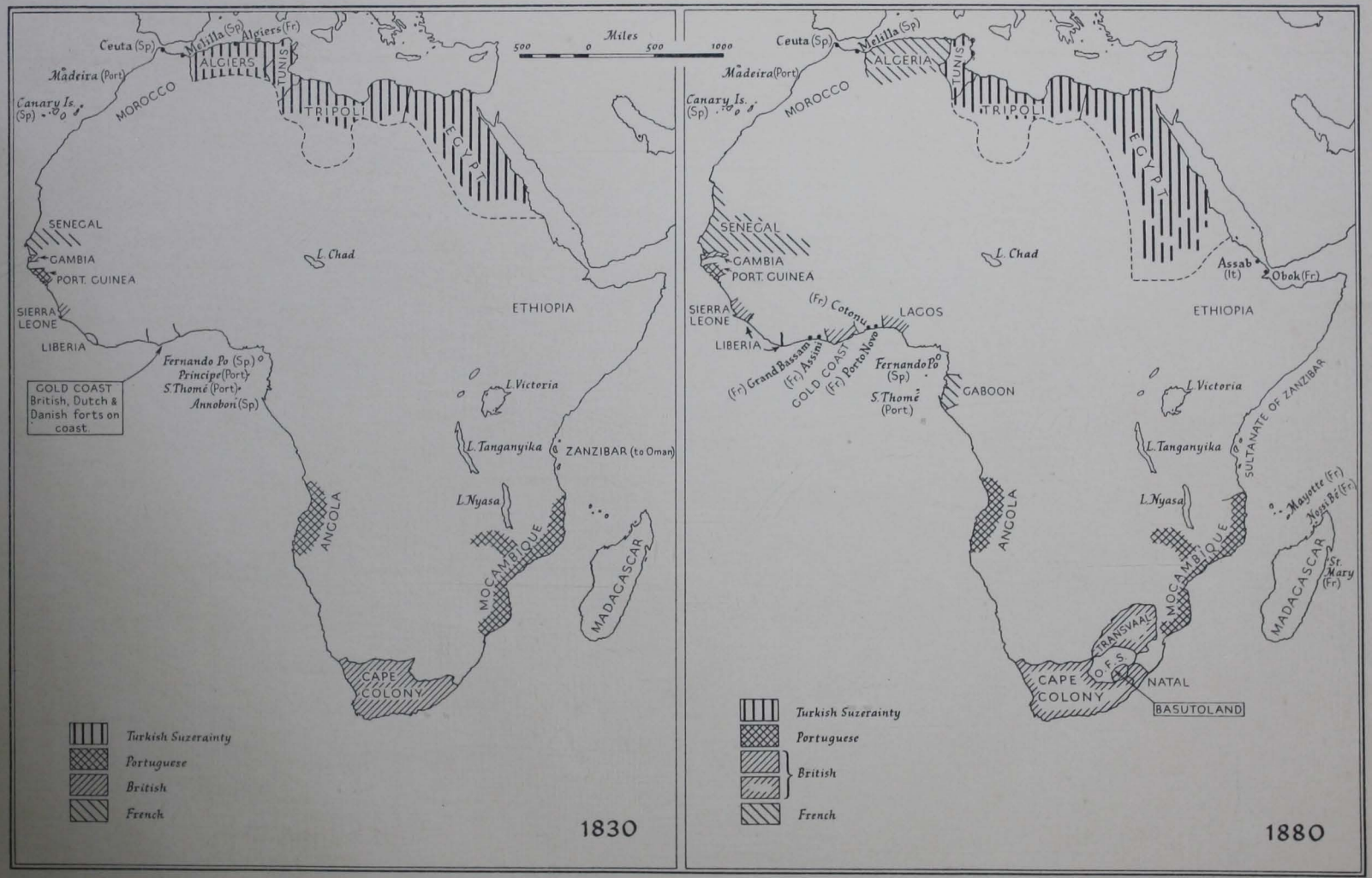
(44) THE EXPANSION OF EUROPEAN SETTLEMENT IN SOUTHERN AFRICA

The white areas are intended to indicate the regions dominated by white settlers at the various dates. The frontiers shown between " white Africa " and " black Africa " can only be regarded as approximate. In the last sketch, h, there is the additional complication that at this time European settlement was also advancing from the north.

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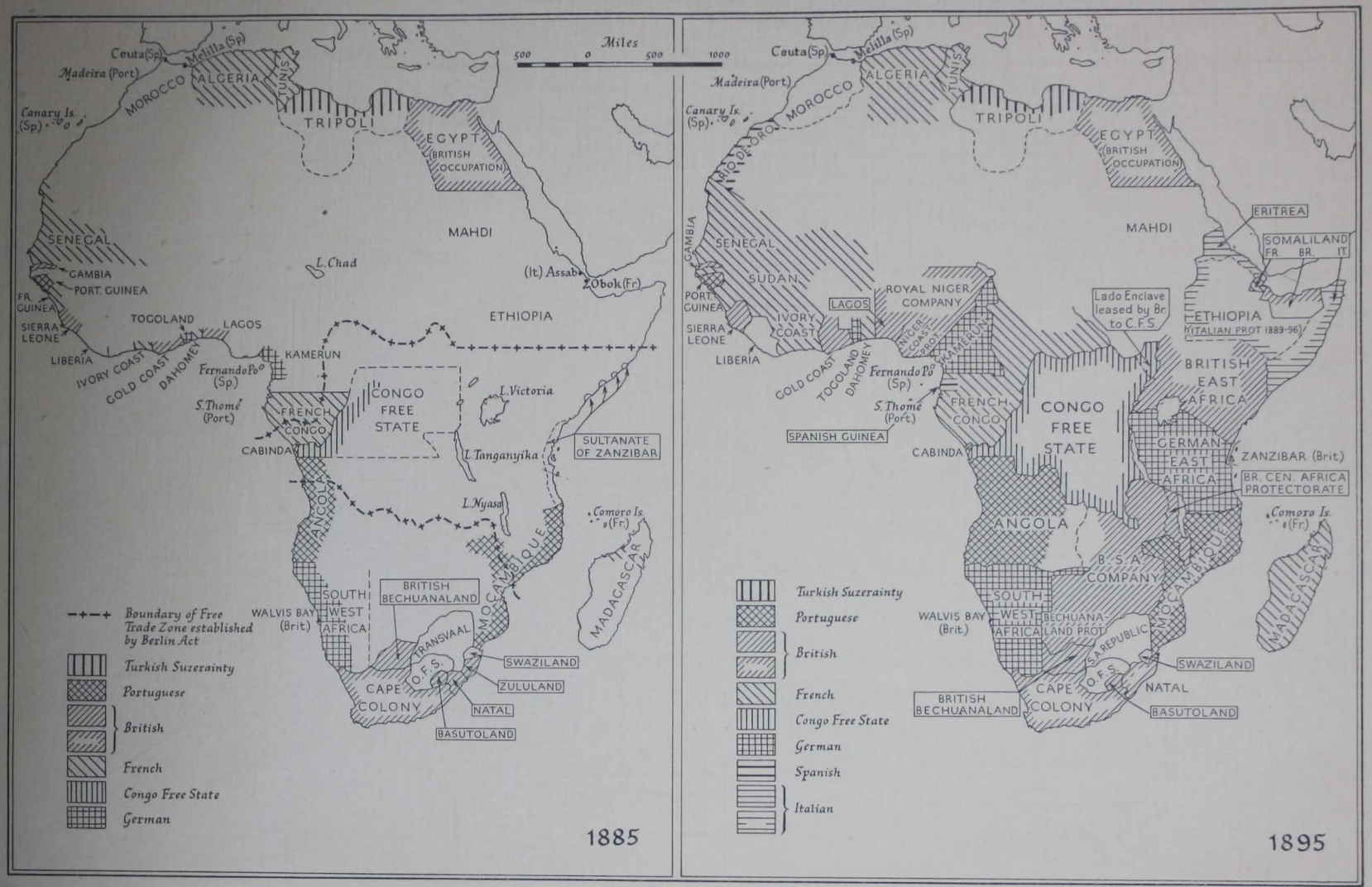
(45) to (52) THE CHANGING PATTERN OF ALIEN RULE IN AFRICA 1830–1957

On the maps on pp. 46–49, two basic kinds of marking are used throughout for the British territories in Africa to differentiate between those territories directly controlled from Britain (complete shading) and those which enjoyed at least internal self-government (partial shading, round the boundaries only). The latter kind of marking is used for the Cape Colony after it had received self-government in 1872, for Natal after the grant of self-government in 1893, and for the Union of South Africa and for Ghana (the former Gold Coast) after they had achieved dominion status in 1909 and 1957 respectively. It should, however, be noted that the forms of self-government granted to Southern Rhodesia in 1923 and to the Federation of the Rhodesias and Nyasaland in 1953 reserved certain powers to the United Kingdom Government, and they have accordingly been treated as though they were wholly dependent territories. Partial shading has also been used for Ethiopia on the map for 1895, the position here being that Ethiopia did not acknowledge the Italian Government's claim that the country was under its protection as a result of the Treaty of Ucciali (1889). With this exception, protectorates have not been distinguished from formal colonies, but broken lines are used throughout to indicate territories held as Mandates of the League of Nations and as Trusteeship territories under the United Nations. It should also be noted that in 1885 the boundaries of the Congo Free State were by no means fixed, and that different nations had recognised different areas as coming under the Free State's jurisdiction; the boundaries shown on the map for 1885 are those which were then recognised by Germany. On the situation in Egypt between 1882 and 1954, see also the note on p. 43.



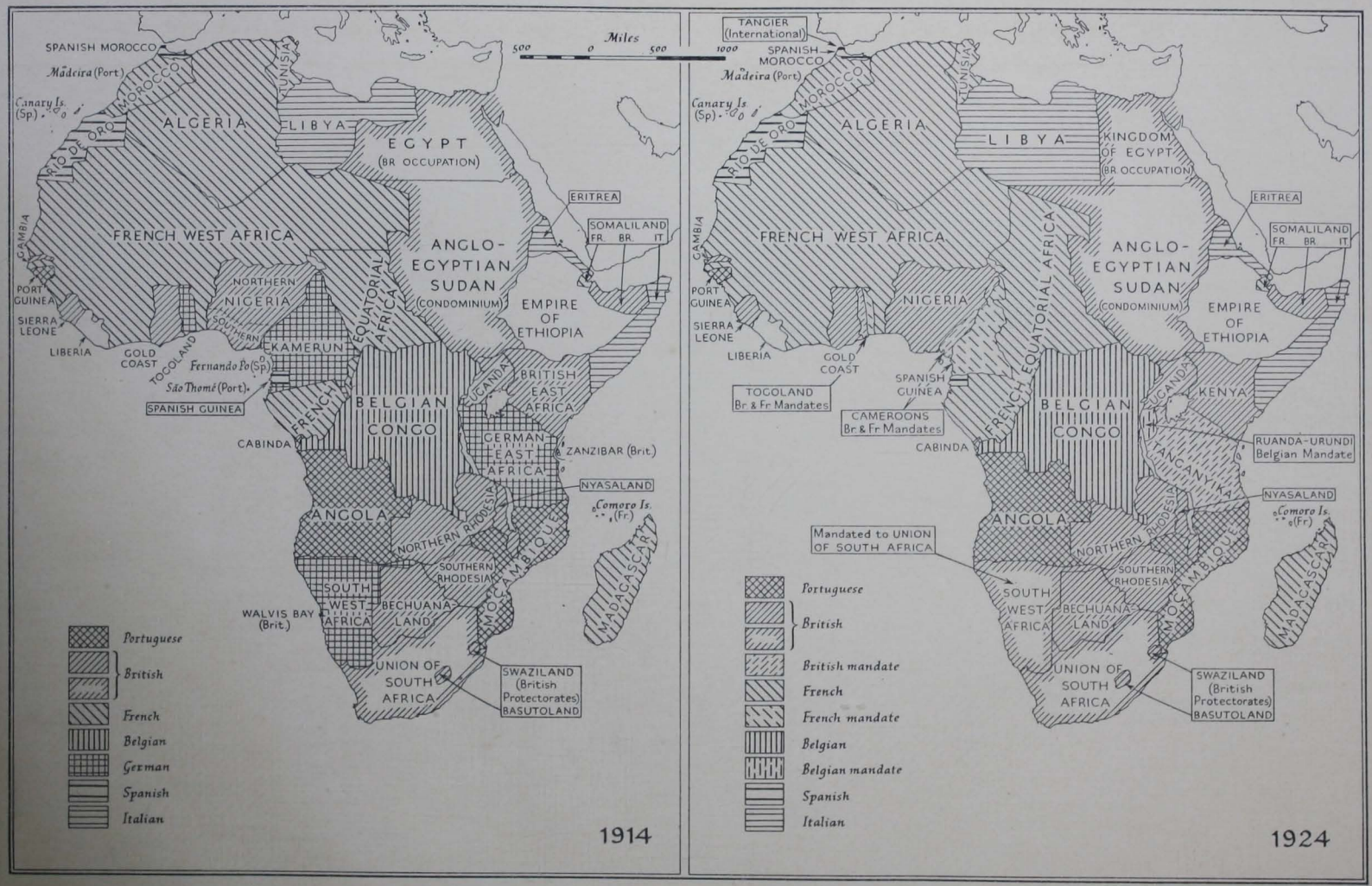
(45) THE PATTERN OF ALIEN RULE IN AFRICA, 1830

(46) THE PATTERN OF ALIEN RULE IN AFRICA, 1880



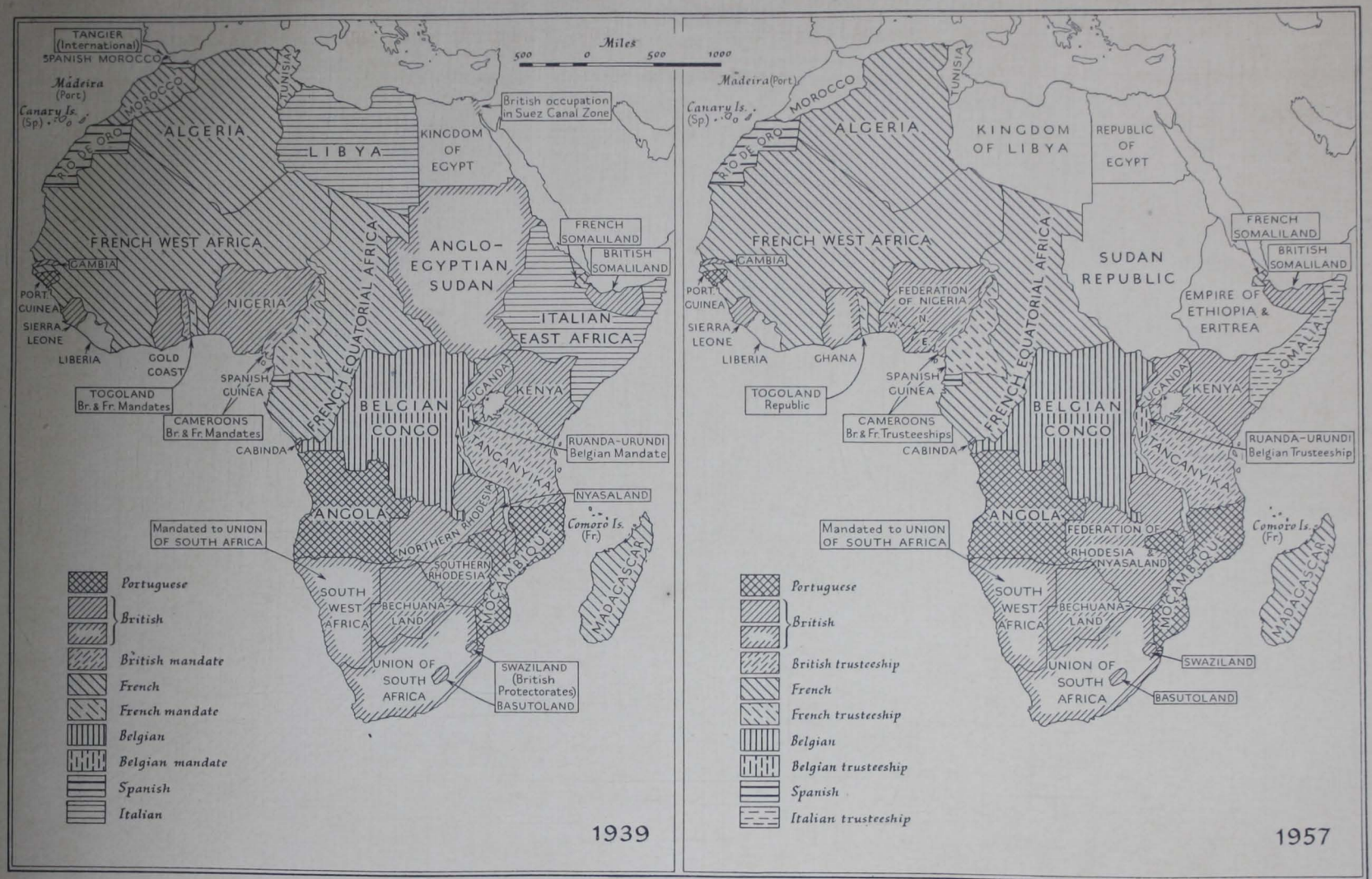
(47) THE PATTERN OF ALIEN RULE IN AFRICA, 1885

(48) THE PATTERN OF ALIEN RULE IN AFRICA, 1895



(49) THE PATTERN OF ALIEN RULE IN AFRICA, 1914

(50) THE PATTERN OF ALIEN RULE IN AFRICA, 1924



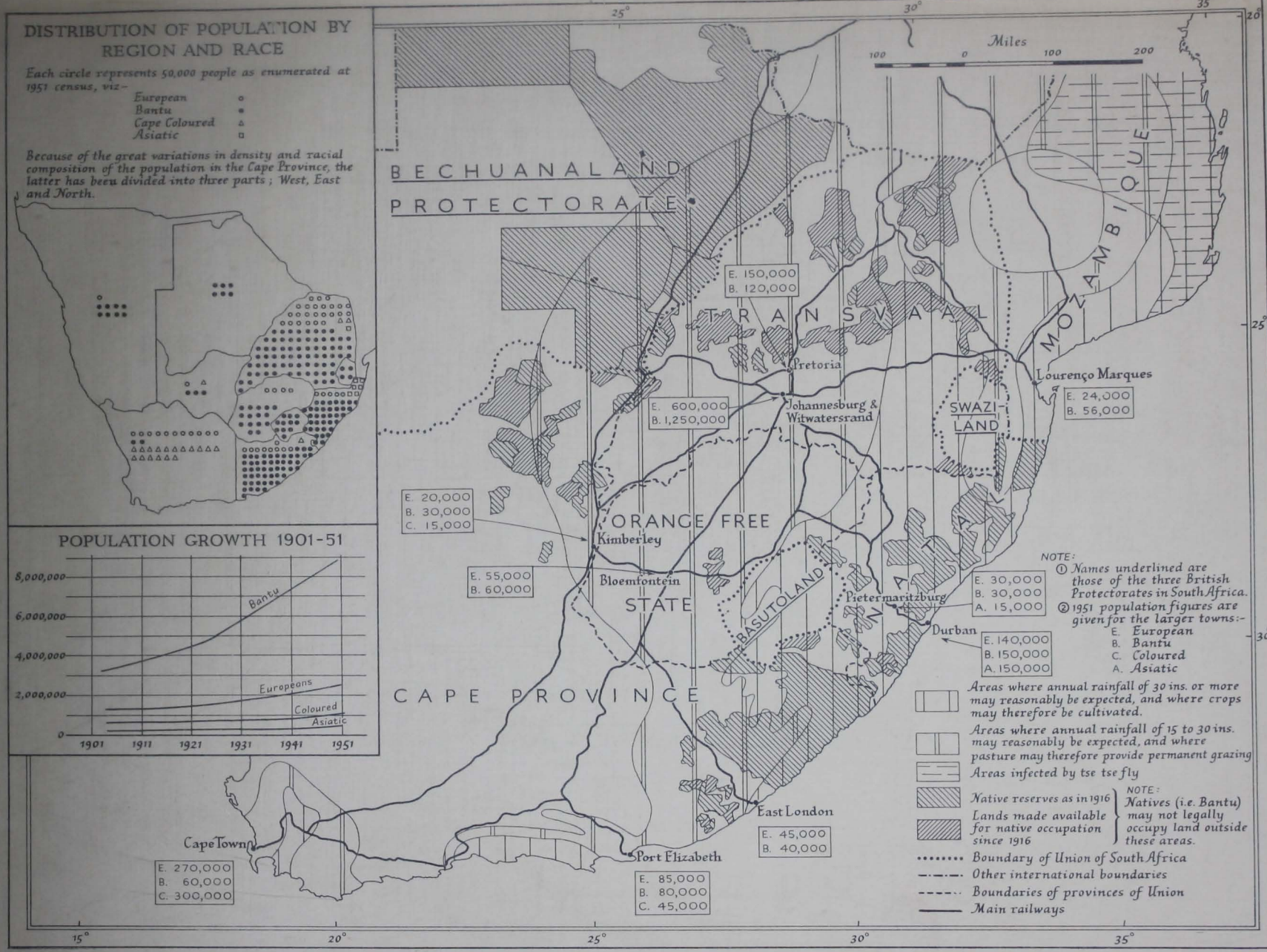
(51) THE PATTERN OF ALIEN RULE IN AFRICA, 1939

(52) THE PATTERN OF ALIEN RULE IN AFRICA, 1957



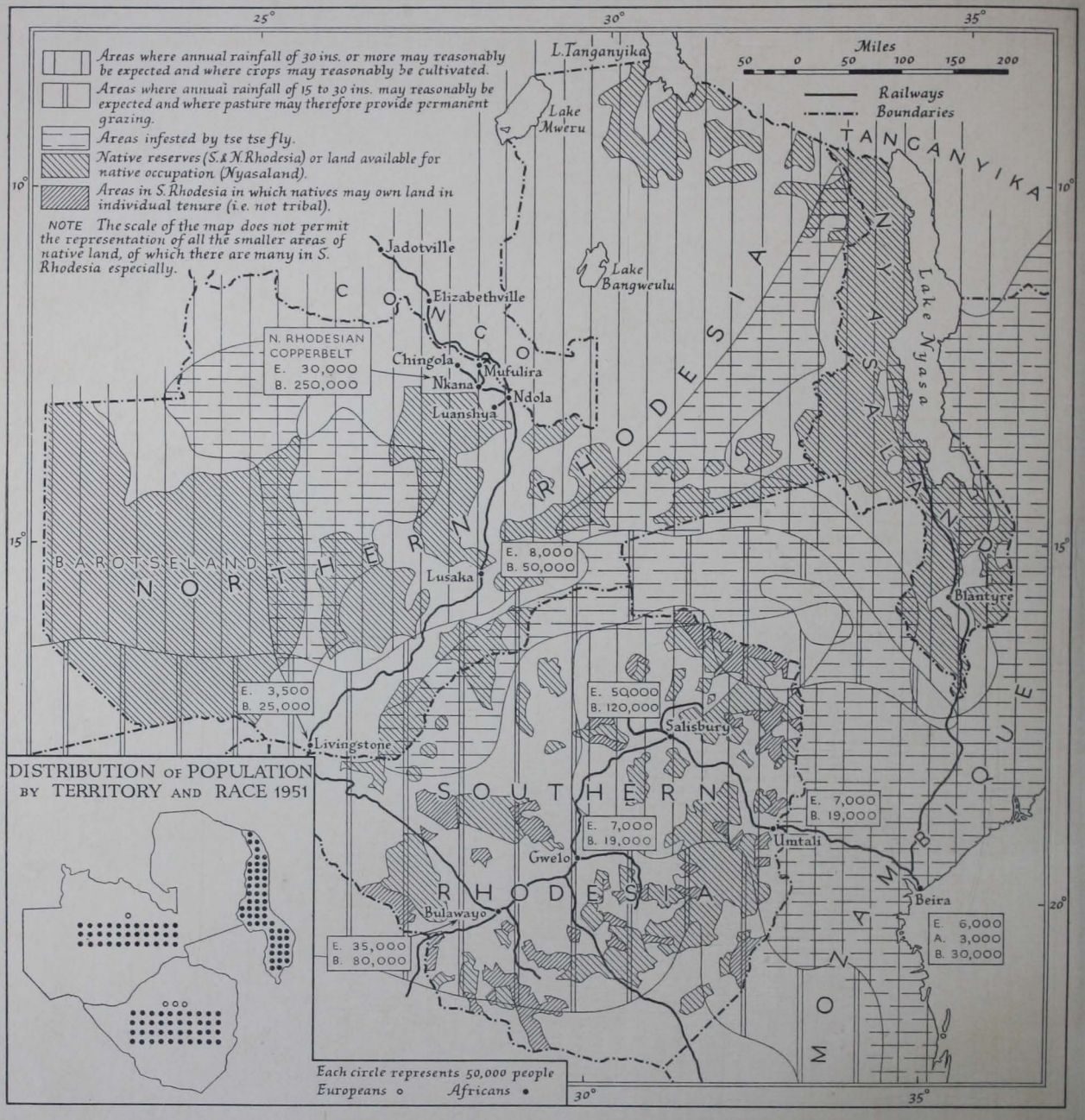
(53) CHRISTIAN MISSIONS IN AFRICA, 1792–1914

Notice how, following in the wake of the explorers, the missionary pioneers made good use of the natural channels of communication into the interior presented by the major waterways, in particular the Congo, the Zambezi and Shire and the East African lakes, and the Senegal and upper Niger.



(54) EUROPEAN SETTLEMENT IN SOUTH AFRICA

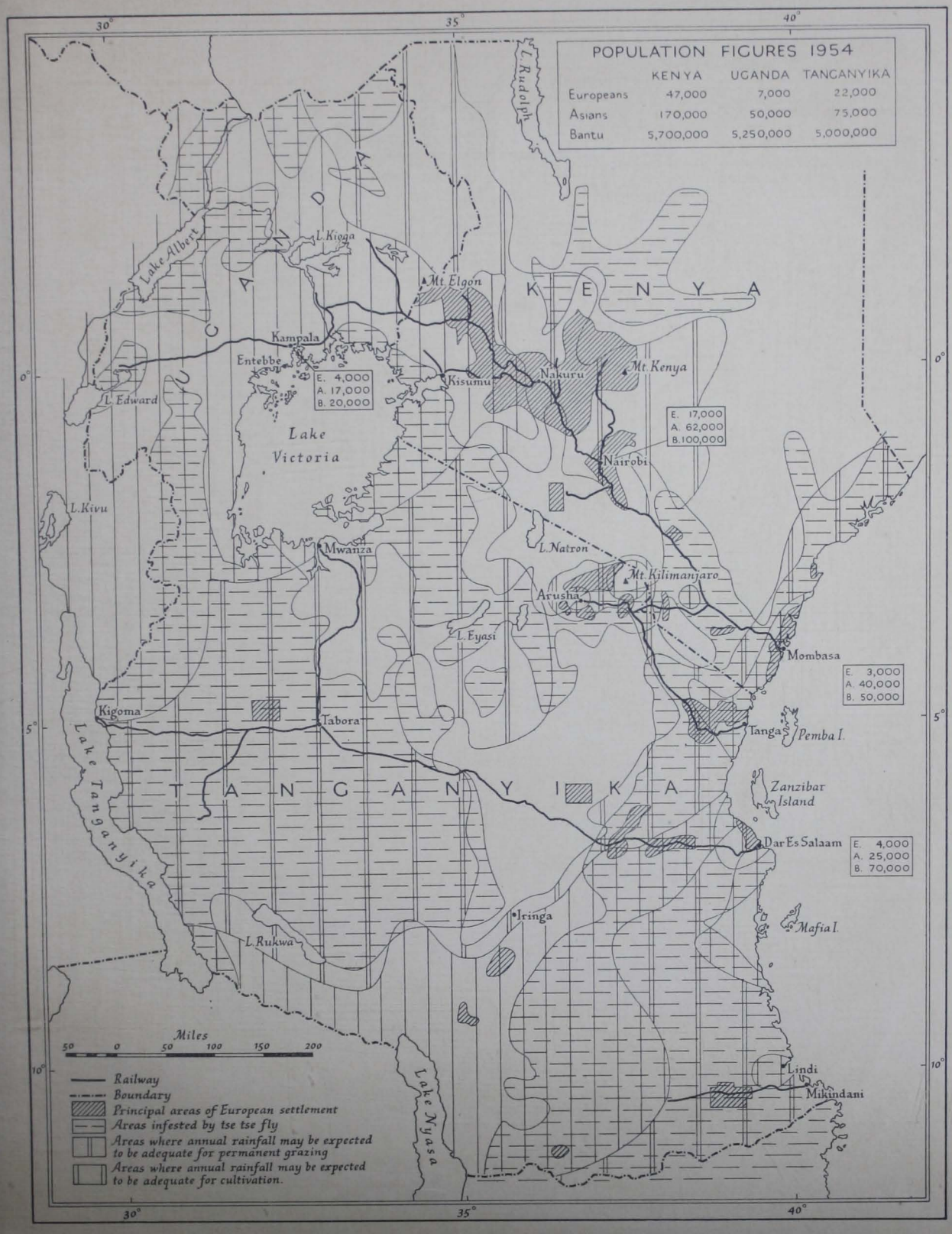
Some of the information contained in this map is based on maps which appear in *Southern Africa, a geographical study*, by J. H. Wellington, by kind permission of the Syndics of Cambridge University Press.



(55) EUROPEAN SETTLEMENT IN CENTRAL AFRICA

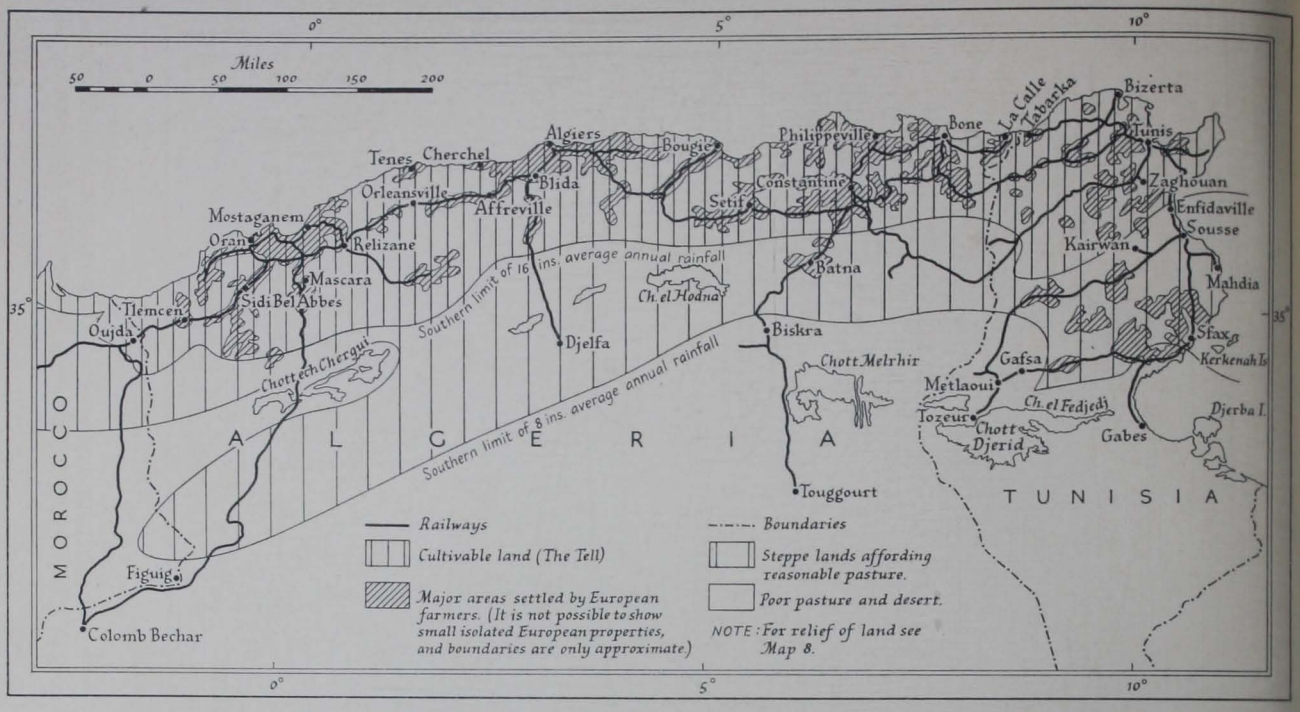
Some of the information contained in this map is based on maps which appear in the Report of the Rhodesia–Nyasaland Commission (Cmd. 5949) by kind permission of the Controller of H.M. Stationery Office; and in *Southern Africa, a geographical study*, by J. H. Wellington, by kind permission of the Syndics of the Cambridge University Press.

MAPS SHOWING EUROPEAN SETTLEMENT IN AFRICA. Note that, whereas on maps (54) and (55) it is *land available for native African occupation* that is shown by close shading, on maps (56) and (57) the convention is reversed and the close shading indicates *land occupied by or alienated to Europeans.*



(56) EUROPEAN SETTLEMENT IN EAST AFRICA

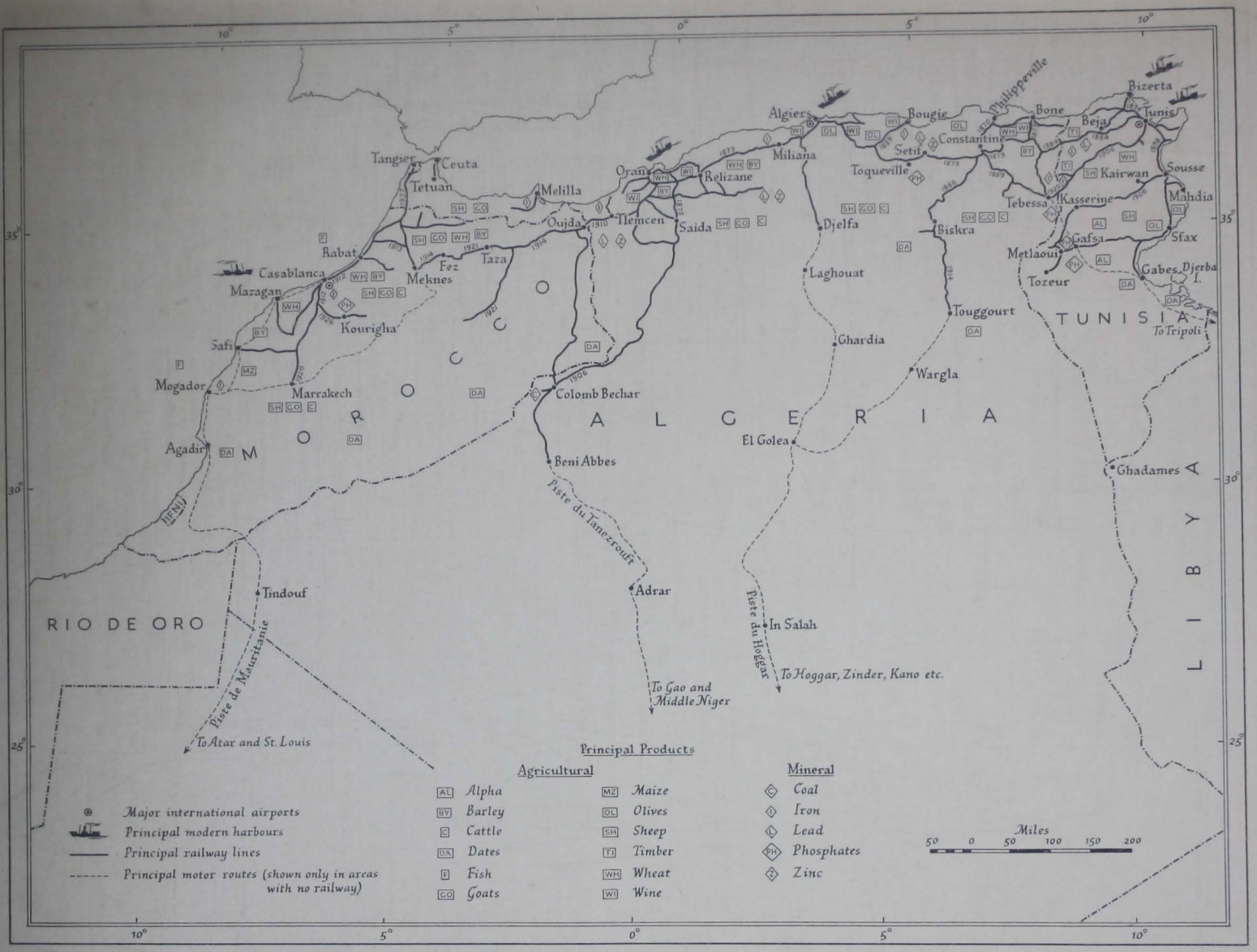
Some of the information in this map is based on maps contained in the Report of the East Africa Royal Commission, 1953–55 (Cmd. 9475) by kind permission of the Controller of H.M. Stationery Office.



(57) EUROPEAN SETTLEMENT IN NORTH AFRICA

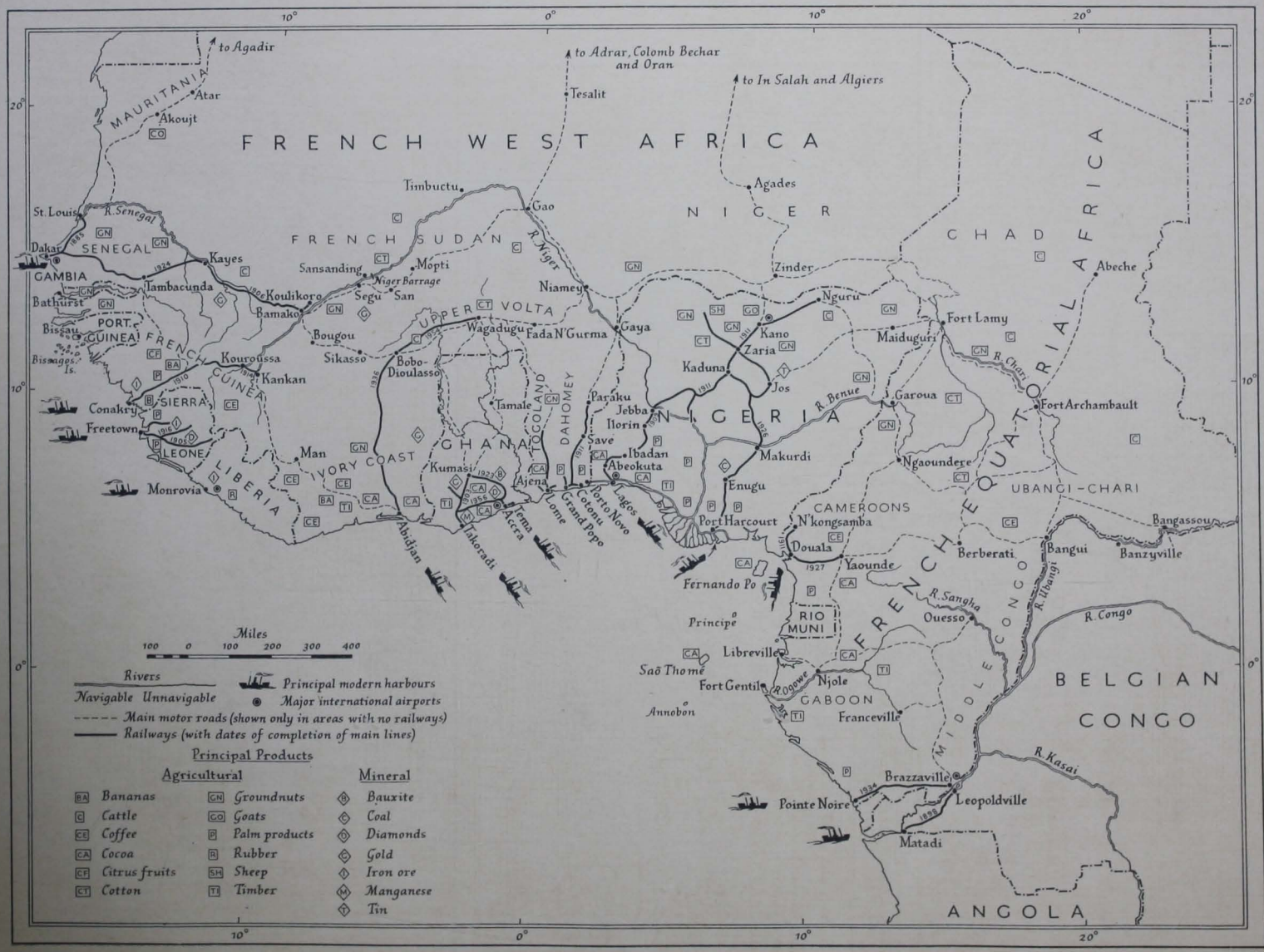
Morocco is not included in the map, partly because European settlement there on any scale began much later than was the case in Algeria and Tunisia, but chiefly because it is predominantly urban rather than rural.

Approximate populations:	*Muslims*	*Jews*	*Europeans*	*Total*
Tunisia (1946)	2,830,000	70,000	240,000	3,140,000
Algeria (1954)	8,350,000	150,000	1,000,000	9,500,000
Morocco:				
French (1954)	7,700,000	200,000	440,000	8,340,000
Spanish (1950)	917,000	8,000	85,000	1,010,000
Tangier (1953)	105,000	15,000	40,000	160,000

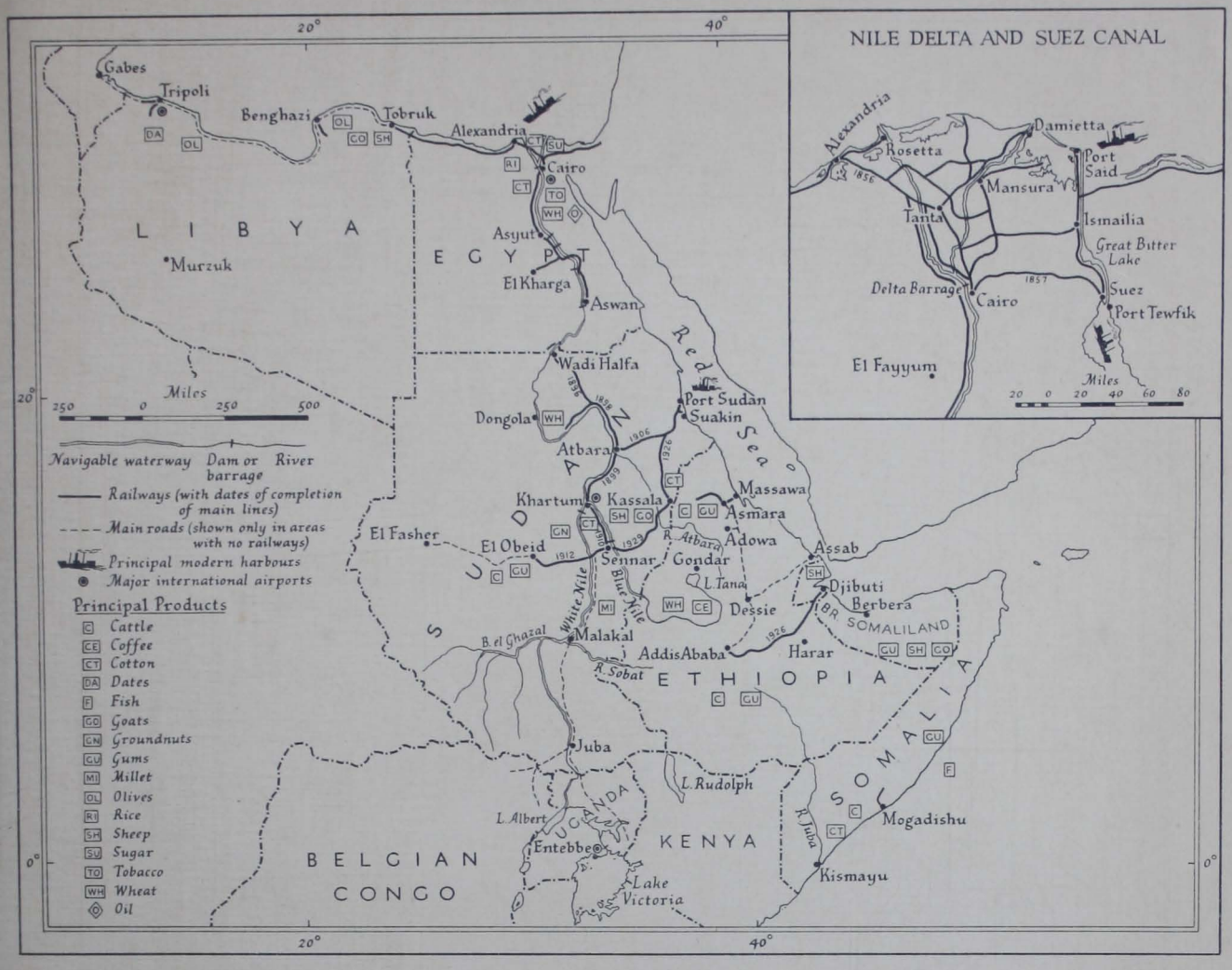


(58) MODERN ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT: NORTH-WEST AFRICA

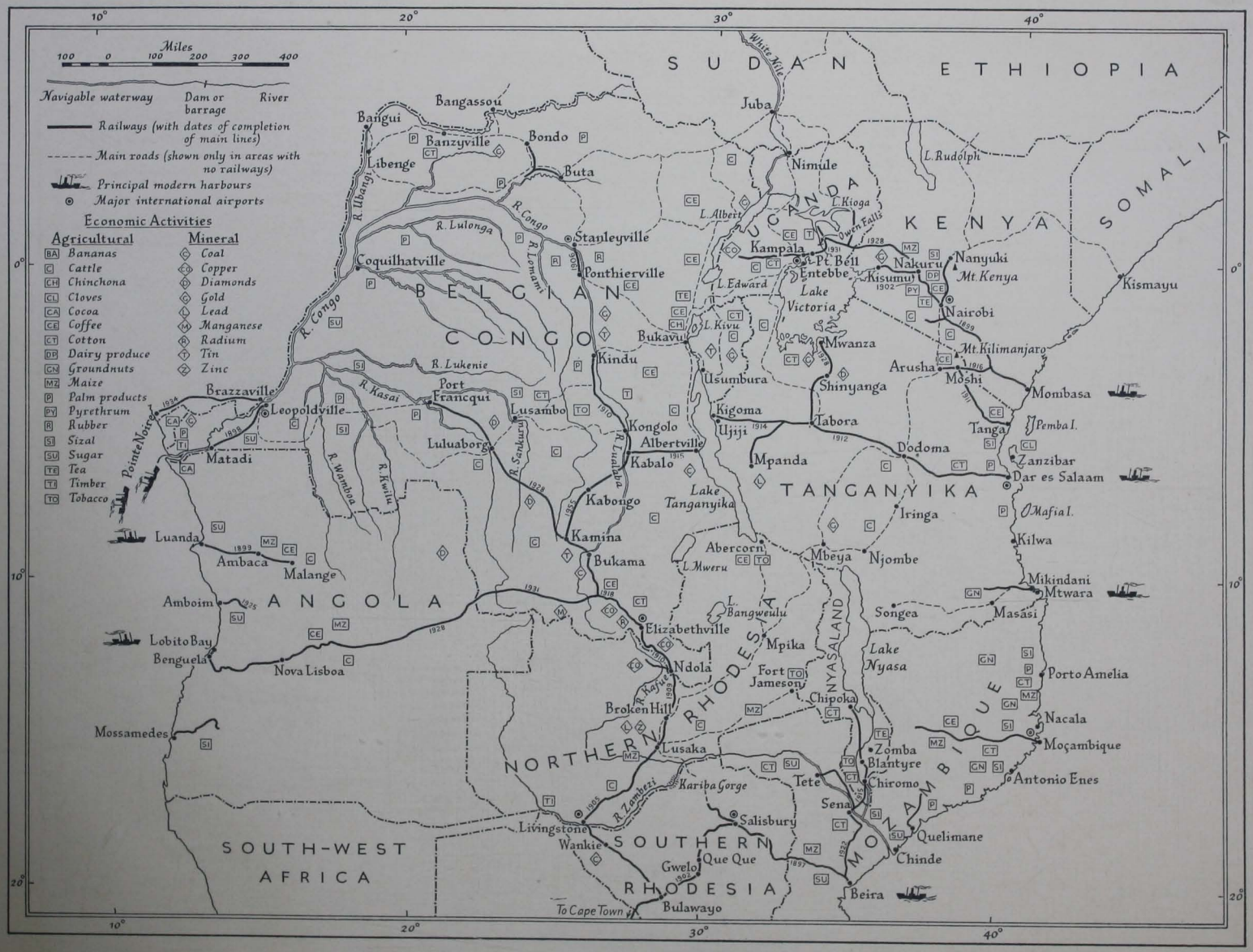
It is impossible to show all the numerous small rivers of this area of Africa, but it must be remembered that, although they are of no navigational value, extensive use of them has been made through dams creating reservoirs for purposes of irrigation and hydro-electric power. Another fact not revealed by the map is that most of the large towns have a fair amount of secondary industry.



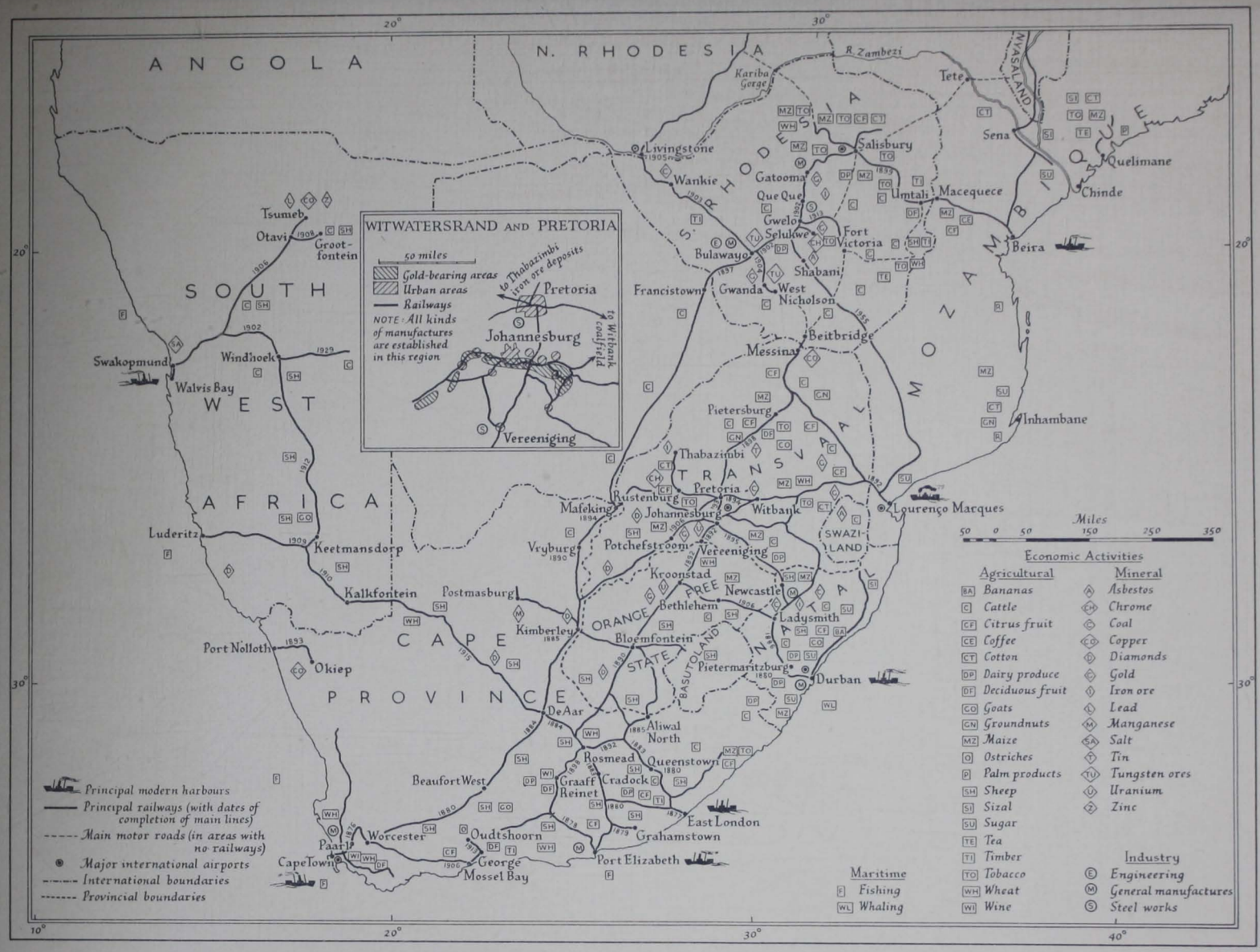
(59) MODERN ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT: WEST AFRICA



(60) MODERN ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT: NORTH-EAST AFRICA



(61) MODERN ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT: CENTRAL AFRICA



(62) MODERN ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT: SOUTH AFRICA

Rivers are not shown on this map. The rivers of South Africa are of no use for navigation and are not very suitable for dams for purposes of irrigation and the production of hydro-electric power, since they are generally shallow and suffer from great seasonal variations in their flow.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The following are among the works consulted in the preparation of the Atlas.

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INDEX OF PROPER NAMES

REFERENCES THROUGHOUT ARE TO *MAP NUMBERS*

Names of geographical features and of places are printed thus: Abai R.; Abeokuta.
Names of countries, provinces, regions, etc., are printed thus: ABYSSINIA; ADRAR.
Names of individual persons are printed thus: *Abu Yazid; Andersson, Charles.*
Names of peoples, associations of persons, etc., are printed thus: *ADANGME, ABD AL WAHIDS, AFRICAN LAKES Co.*
Bantu and Arabic names are indexed under the initial letter of their root or substantive name, the Bantu prefix or the Arabic article being shown first without a capital initial. An exception to this rule is where the prefix or article is accepted as part of a geographical name in common usage, unless in the case of Bantu names, it is necessary to show both the "tribal" and "location" forms.
Examples:

(1) al Fustat (under *F*). but El Fasher (under E);
(2) bany-ANKOLE (under *A*), the Ankole people, but MASHONALAND (under M), the land of the *ma-SHONA*.
(3) *ba-GANDA* (people) and bu-GANDA (country of the *ba-GANDA*), both indexed under G.

Abbreviations:

B.	bay
C.	cape
I., Is.	isle, island; isles, islands
L.	lake
Mt., Mts.	mount; mountain, mountains
O.	oasis
R.	river
S., St.	São, Saint, Sainte, etc.

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